

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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HIGH SCHOOL-COLLEGE ARTICULATION

THE PROBLEM of high school-college articulation has been with us since the high school ceased to be an institution existing for the primary purpose of preparing students for college study. As has been pointed out many times, the role of the high school has changed with the large influx of students many of whom would terminate their formal education at the high-school level. For such students, a course of study designed to prepare students for college entrance seemed clearly inappropriate. It has been necessary to expand and reorganize the materials of instruction to provide an education consistent with the goals of non-college youth. The ends of "life-adjustment" education—the term commonly used today to describe an educational program oriented toward non-college youth—were not well served by the conventionally organ-

ized courses of study, introductory to the several fields of knowledge, which characterized the "college-entrance" program.

The high school has found itself faced with the problem, not of changing its objectives, but rather of broadening them to include service to non-college youth. It continues to be the agency charged with the responsibility of preparing students for college. The magnitude of the problem of articulation with the college posed by the changing character of the high school is indicated by the prominent place given to its discussion in the educational literature of recent years.

The high schools charge that their efforts to effect necessary changes in the curriculum have been hampered by the continued insistence of many colleges on a particular type of program as prerequisite to college work, and even on a particular pattern of courses for admission to college. The

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same kind of influence is exerted by the college over the high-school curriculum, though in more subtle form, when the college admits students on the basis of entrance examinations covering specific content. In fact, this latter method of admission permits the college to go beyond prescription of the courses to be taken; it actually permits the college to dictate the content to be taught in high school.

The high schools further complain that in many cases they are unable to secure adequate information about a college's program or about the level or kind of ability necessary for success in a given college. Neither college announcements nor institutional representatives are helpful in this regard. And even if the college announcements do set forth clearly the policies of the institution, such announced policies are not always followed in practice. The irritation of the high-school authorities is intensified by what they consider the unreasonable demands for information about applicants for college made by the colleges and by the variety of forms in which such information must be provided. Their objections on this score would be less serious if they were convinced that the colleges made effective use of the large amount of information which they must provide.

The college authorities, on the other hand, have been loud in their complaints about the inadequacies, from their point of view, of the high school. They object to what they interpret to be the unwillingness of many high-

school people to agree to the right of each college, at least the privately controlled college, to select its students on whatever basis may seem appropriate. They contend that students are not being adequately trained in the high schools in the basic skills of reading, writing, and speaking that are needed for successful pursuit of a college program. Further, the high schools have failed to revise their instructional procedures in light of the findings of research. (This charge is also leveled against the colleges by the high schools.)

The colleges feel that the high schools fail to provide the students with the kind of guidance they need for adjustment to the college situation. They are critical of the view held by some high-school authorities that college entrance requirements are intended only to screen out students who will probably not be successful in college. This assumption, they point out, fails to recognize that entrance requirements also serve as assurance that the student has reached a point in his general education which will enable him to continue his studies in college with profit.

At least in some instances, the charges of the high schools and the countercharges of the colleges have been distinguished more by their acrimony than by their usefulness in attacking the very real problem of high school-college articulation. Much more constructive in their approach have been the researches concerned with discovery of valid measures of

prediction of success in college and the projects in which high schools and colleges, working co-operatively, attempt to bring about better articulation.

The results of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association and the Southern Study of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, both of which addressed themselves in part to the solution of this problem, are well known. A number of other co-operative projects have been set up which hold promise for the improvement of articulation between schools and colleges in various sections of the country. As in the Eight-Year Study and the Southern Study, a primary objective of many of these projects is to free the high school of the curricular prescriptions of the colleges, thus permitting the high school to experiment in curricular revision.

The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement¹ is an excellent example of this type of undertaking. It grew originally out of the conviction that college-entrance requirements were a hindrance to the high schools in effective, needed revision of the curriculum. Under the agreement:

The college agrees to disregard the pattern of subjects pursued in considering for admission the graduates of selected accredited high schools, provided they are recommended by the school from among the more able students in the graduating class. This Agreement does not imply that students

must be admitted to certain college courses or curricula for which they cannot give evidence of adequate preparation.

The agreement provides that the high schools, in turn:

... shall assume responsibility for and shall furnish evidence that they are initiating and continuing such procedures as the following:

a) A program involving the building of an adequate personal file about each student, including testing data of various kinds, anecdotal records, personality inventories, achievement samples, etc. The high-school staff will assume responsibility for developing a summary of these personnel data for submission to the college.

b) A basic curriculum study and evaluation of the purposes and program of the secondary school.

c) Procedures for continuous follow-up of former pupils.

d) A continuous program of information and orientation throughout the high-school course regarding the nature and requirements of certain occupations and specialized college courses. During the Senior year, to devote special emphasis to the occupation or college of the pupil's choice.

A central committee, composed of representatives of the Michigan Association of School Administrators, the State Department of Public Instruction, the Michigan Secondary-School Association, and the Michigan College Association, has been formed for the purpose of facilitating the project. Consultant service is being made available to the co-operating schools through several channels. Some ninety-two secondary schools and most of the colleges have signed the agreement.

Promising projects looking toward

¹ Leon S. Waskin, "The Michigan Secondary School-College Agreement," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (January, 1949), 51.

improved high school-college relations, better articulation between the two levels, and curricular revision have also been set up on a state-wide basis in a number of other states among which are Illinois, Ohio, Minnesota, and Oklahoma. A recent report of a city-wide project of this character is the *Report on Articulation between the High Schools and the Municipal Colleges of New York City*, published in 1950 by the Board of Education of the City of New York.

A number of individual higher institutions, both state and privately controlled, have sponsored studies which have for their purpose improved relationships with the high schools. Among the state institutions engaged in this kind of endeavor are the University of California, the University of Colorado, the University of Michigan, the University of Missouri, and Ohio State University. Some of the private higher institutions are Allegheny College, Hiram College, Kenyon College, and Western Reserve University.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools which, as the name indicates, includes in its membership both secondary and higher institutions, has long been concerned with the problem of school-college articulation. The most recent manifestation of its interest in the problem is the creation in 1949 of its Committee on High School-College Relations. This committee, in considering the ways in which the North Central Association might best foster improved school-college articulation,

has reached the conclusion that the Association can, at least for the time being, make its greatest contribution through encouraging the creation of additional working agreements between schools and colleges and through disseminating reports of progress on the projects now under way and on new studies which may be set up.

This conclusion is based on the view that, so long as we preserve the values of individuality in our educational institutions, both secondary and higher, no single plan for improving high school-college articulation can be evolved which will operate effectively in all situations. This would only be possible were there to be, in both secondary and collegiate institutions, a degree of uniformity that most of us would agree would be wholly undesirable. If there is no one answer but are, rather, many answers, the most fruitful approach to improved relations appears to be for schools and colleges to make individual working arrangements which will permit them to take account of differences in conditions from one situation to another. The first task the committee set for itself was a review and analysis of the literature on this topic. The report of this undertaking, which will set forth the major problems to be dealt with in improving relations and will discuss some of the co-operative projects designed to accomplish this purpose, will appear in the January, 1951, issue of the *North Central Association Quarterly*. At a later date the Association may extend the scope of its activities

in this field to include active sponsorship of co-operative projects and possibly the provision of consultant service.

THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

WE HAVE BEEN HEARING MUCH in recent years of the emergence of the local public junior college as a "community college"—a community-centered institution which will attempt to meet a wide variety of local educational needs in addition to those of the high-school graduate who is on his way into senior college or professional school. But in many instances the junior college, like the high school, has found that its attempts to develop programs appropriate to the needs of the community have been hampered by the requirements of senior colleges and professional schools to which some of its students transfer. Too small and with resources too limited to permit the offering of courses of study in addition to the college-preparatory course, many of these institutions confine their efforts almost exclusively to the offering of the first two years of a conventional college program.

There are, however, encouraging signs that the junior college is freeing itself from university domination. In ever growing numbers, these institutions are setting up terminal programs which represent significant departures from the conventional collegiate course of study, and are thus approaching the ideal of the community college. But even these innovating junior colleges are still serving pri-

marily the youth of college age. A true community college must reach the adults of the community as well as the young people of "school age." Yet a recent unpublished survey of a large number of junior colleges disclosed few instances of effective service to the adults of the community.

There are, of course, some notable exceptions to the general rule. One of these is the Evening Community College of Rochester, Minnesota, which, according to a recent report, enrolled one-fifth of all the adults in the community during the past academic year. The adult enrolment of this institution has grown from 78 students in 1943 to 2,467 in 1949-50.

EXTENSION OF SOCIAL SECURITY BENEFITS

THE SOCIAL SECURITY Act Amendments of 1950 provide that employees of nonprofit organizations which are exempt from income tax may qualify for Federal Old Age and Survivors Insurance if the institution files a certificate stating that it desires to have the insurance system established and that two-thirds of its employees desire such benefits and concur in the filing of the certificate. This provision should contribute to the strengthening of many institutions of higher learning which do not make adequate provision for the support of members of the faculty during the nonproductive years of old age.

Obviously, the success of an institution in recruiting and retaining able faculty members is dependent in no

small measure on the attractiveness of the conditions under which faculty members serve. One of the important conditions of faculty service is the provision of adequate retirement allowances. Also, the failure to make systematic provision for adequate pensions often means that the elderly faculty member is continued in active service beyond the age at which, for the welfare of both the institution and the individual, he should have been retired.

Today, because of the low rate of return on invested funds and the decline in the value of the dollar, many retirement plans which were at one time satisfactory no longer provide sufficient income to support the retired faculty member. Privately controlled colleges and universities can use the Social Security benefits to supplement existing pension plans.

Unfortunately, employees of state and local governments in positions *now covered* by retirement systems are not eligible for Old Age and Survivors Insurance coverage. This leaves teachers in public schools and state colleges, many of whom are in inadequate retirement systems operated by states, in a position of relative disadvantage in comparison with teachers in private institutions.

SPECIALIZED VERSUS GENERAL EDUCATION AS AFFECTED BY ACCREDITATION

POSSIBLY, as John Dewey claims, there need not be, and should not be, any conflict between the "voca-

tional" and the "liberal" in education. Dewey once said:

Inspiring vocational education with a liberal spirit and filling it with a liberal content is not a utopian dream. It is a demonstrated possibility in schools here and there in which subjects usually labeled "practically useful" are taught charged with scientific understanding and with a sense of the social-moral applications they potentially possess.*

Nevertheless, in the minds of many educators and in the practice of many schools, there is such a conflict. On the high-school level it exists between those who would emphasize "education for living" and those who would emphasize "education for making a living." On the junior-college level it is reflected in the program compromises between general education and technician training, which frequently take the form of a requirement that terminal occupational curriculums include some courses possessing general-education values. The underlying thought is, of course, that these values cannot be, or at least usually are not, found in courses with an occupational objective. In the college or university the defender of the liberal arts and the proponent of general education are aligned against the specialist. The former are concerned with the part to be played by the higher institution in educating for effective personal and social living; the latter, with the obligation of the higher institution to prepare the highly competent specialists whose services are indispensable to modern society.

* John Dewey, *Problems of Men*, p. 32. New York: Philosophical Library, 1946.

In recent years the interests of the specialist have been greatly advanced through the development of accrediting agencies that approve or disapprove curriculums on the basis of standards by which the institution's offerings in the several professional and specialized areas are evaluated. Medicine, dentistry, law, social work, veterinary medicine, music, business administration, nursing, forestry, theology, journalism, chemistry, and other fields as well, have their accrediting agencies.

Clearly, a social purpose is served by professional accrediting. Society needs to be protected against inadequately prepared practitioners. Furthermore, there is every reason to believe that persons possessing high degrees of competence in a special field would make valid judgments about the nature of the course of study to be pursued by those preparing for the field and about the level of attainment to be expected of students. Nevertheless, responsible administrators of higher institutions are becoming increasingly concerned lest the requirements imposed by the ever growing number of accrediting agencies result in unbalanced institutional programs. As various parts of an institution's program come to be, in effect, controlled by off-campus agencies, the institutional authorities intrusted with the responsibility for planning, organizing, and administering find themselves deprived of the authority to discharge that responsibility. They fear, and with some cause, that the liberal

arts ideal may be placed in jeopardy by the special requirements imposed by some accrediting agencies.

It is important that the values of accrediting be preserved. It is equally important that higher education be protected against the objectionable practices of some accrediting agencies and that our higher institutions continue to enjoy their traditional freedom to determine their own objectives and constantly to seek, through experimentation, better means for attaining these objectives. The interests of society are served through both channels. It is, therefore, incumbent upon those interested in the cause of education, whether they be identified primarily with accrediting agencies or with institutions, to work toward a resolution of the conflicts that have arisen.

Two groups have recently been formed which could serve as media through which the mutual understanding essential to alleviation of the difficulties might be promoted. One is the National Commission on Accrediting, composed of representatives of the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Universities, the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, the Association of Urban Universities, and the National Association of State Universities. The organizations represented, none of which engages in accrediting activities, include in their respective memberships most of the higher institutions of the country. The Commission proposes to represent the inter-

ests of these institutions in seeking a solution to the problems posed by accrediting.

The other group is the National Committee of Regional Accrediting Agencies. This committee, representative of the six general accrediting agencies that blanket the country, has for its ultimate purpose the alleviation of the evils of accrediting through encouraging the adoption by accrediting agencies of a sound and defensible philosophy of accrediting and, once a common philosophy has been accepted, through promoting co-ordination of the activities of the several agencies. Educators will watch with interest the progress of these two groups.

SELECTIVE SERVICE AND HIGHER EDUCATION

EDUCATORS ARE very acutely conscious of the need for a well-conceived national policy governing the utilization of manpower during these critical times. Unless such a policy is established, it will be impossible to preserve the balance between military and civilian needs which is essential to national well-being. It is also clear that the national interest will be poorly served if decisions on manpower utilization are made on an emergency basis. On October 6-7, 1950, a Conference on Higher Education in the National Service was held under the auspices of the American Council on Education. It was attended by nearly 600 college and uni-

versity officials, 91 representatives of organizations in higher education, and 140 members of government agencies. The report of the conference, printed in the bulletin, *Higher Education and National Affairs* (Bulletin 159), points out:

We appear to be engaged in a struggle between two opposing concepts of human organization which may well carry on for many years. This struggle may be only in part and sporadically military, although there may be the possibility of large-scale military combat, but it is certain that the struggle will take other forms.

The report also states:

The conflict in which we find ourselves is being waged on three fronts: the technological; the military; and the ideological. To all three our colleges and universities can and will contribute. We must see that our present technological advantage is secured. Our present military weakness must be corrected not only in a quantitative sense, but also through the superior quality of our training. On the ideological front we must mobilize our intellectual and spiritual resources to disseminate truth and make meaningful and compelling our heritage of freedom.

Essential to technological ascendancy is freedom of research and inquiry. Essential to the wise use of manpower is a dynamic policy which seeks constantly to balance the numerical and other needs of the military with the nation's continuing need for liberally educated men and women.

The American Council on Education's Committee on the Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government has also given careful consideration to this problem. The results of the Committee's deliberations at its meeting on October 24-25,

1950, as reported in *Higher Education and National Affairs* (Bulletin 162), are presented below:

Available statistics, apparently reliable, indicate that once the reserves and the National Guard are released from active duty, Selective Service will find it necessary to call the entire pool of physically and mentally fit men reaching the age of eighteen or nineteen each year if the armed forces are to be maintained at a level of 3,000,000. . . .

If all acceptable men are to be called immediately upon reaching draft-eligible age, the nation will be faced with drastic shortages of educated manpower far more serious than those during World War II. This can be avoided only by a sound, clear-cut policy of deferment of at least a proportion of those of highest ability for a period long enough to permit them to achieve the specialized training so vital to the military services as well as to the civilian economy. Discussions within the committee make it quite clear that educators in general recognize the fact that no one acceptable for military duty is going to avoid service, but a firm opinion exists that not all need enter service immediately upon reaching the minimum eligible age. With this in mind the committee unanimously approved the following resolution which would provide a deferment policy within the framework of the present Selective Service Law and could serve as a basis for deferment provisions in any revised legislation that may come up for consideration by the Congress:

"WHEREAS, The military security of the United States rests upon its scientific, industrial, and intellectual advancement as well as upon its combat manpower; and

"WHEREAS, Many men can render more service in the armed forces after their college training than before; and

"WHEREAS, The military forces will require trained medical and other experts after college and university education and it would be unfair to draft such men twice, once be-

fore college and again after completion of professional training;

"Therefore be it resolved, That

"At age eighteen, all men register, be given their pre-induction physical examinations, be examined by means of a nationally administered test to determine their aptitude for education and training, and be classified as physically fit or unfit, as eligible or ineligible, for college training before military service. (Suggestion: The equivalent of the Army General Classification Test score of 110 be the national cutting score.)

"On the basis of nationally determined state quotas, eligible men may then voluntarily apply for admission to or continuance in a college or university of their choice.

"After the student's satisfactory completion of a college-level program and, if admitted, of graduate or professional education, he shall be liable for his full period of military service unless assigned by the President of the United States to some other service in the national interest. It is understood that, if the student voluntarily withdraws or fails to maintain satisfactory progress in accordance with the standards of the institution, he is immediately liable to call under Selective Service.

"It seems desirable that women be enlisted or commissioned on a volunteer basis in all noncombatant services appropriate to their training and to the needs of the armed forces."

FEDERAL LOANS FOR CONSTRUCTION OF STUDENT AND FACULTY HOUSING

UNDER PUBLIC LAW 475, approved April 20, 1950, provision is made for federal loans to educational institutions for the construction of student and faculty housing. The loans, which would bear a low rate of interest, would be repayable within a

period not to exceed forty years. No more than 10 per cent of the total amount lent could go to the educational institutions of any one state.

Before there had been an opportunity to get the program under way, the international situation resulted in the issuance by President Truman on July 18 of an order suspending the provisions of the law for the time being. It is the hope of administrators of higher institutions that the suspension will be lifted in the near future. The following action was taken at the Conference on Higher Education in the National Service, as reported in *Higher Education and National Affairs* (Bulletin 159):

In view of the critical need for student housing and the usefulness of college and university dormitories in any program of training associated with the armed services, it is recommended:

That steps be taken to put in operation immediately the provisions of Public Law No. 475 relating to loans for the construction of housing facilities on college and university campuses, and that the American Council on Education transmit this recommendation to the appropriate governmental agencies and take such other steps as may be desirable to activate the program.

WORK-ADJUSTMENT PLANS FOR YOUTH

Plan for evening students One of the Cincinnati evening high schools has introduced a new type of program for co-ordinating job and school experiences of employed youth enrolled in night-school classes. Work-adjustment counseling

is provided on an individual basis, the counselor endeavoring to establish a direct relationship between the requirements of the student's daytime job and the job-training values of the courses in which he is enrolled. To this end the counselor works in close contact with the student's employer and with his instructors in night school. This program of work-adjustment counseling is available only to students registered in advanced courses pertaining to the work in which they are employed. To receive scholastic credit for work experience, these students must make satisfactory progress both in school and on the job.

As the initial experiment in a contemplated city-wide program of work-adjustment counseling for students in evening high schools, the plan was set up this fall to provide for students in the business and sales fields. According to the November 10 issue of *Better Schools*, official publication of the Cincinnati public schools, it is expected that similar programs related to other occupational areas will be developed in due time. Employers have accepted the plan with enthusiasm, and about twenty students qualified for participation in this experiment of limited scope.

Counseling unemployed youth The State Department of Public Instruction of Michigan is developing a guidance and work-experience program for unemployed youth of high-school age, with special

consideration for those who are out of school. The program provides competent counseling service, both group and individual, in the choice of a vocational field and in the techniques of getting and holding a job.

The State Department is seeking the co-operation of a selected group of cities for a test of the proposed plan, for the support of which the W. K. Kellogg Foundation has provided a grant of \$37,700. Ann Arbor, Bay City, and Dearborn have expressed interest in participating. Co-operating school systems will permit use of their regular vocational-education facilities for the project. It is expected that the program will eventually be adopted by communities throughout the state, financial support being provided by state and local governmental agencies and possibly by private contributions.

Two types of activity are contemplated for broadening the opportunities for guided work experience so as to meet the needs of as many of the unemployed youth as possible. First, all of those for whom part-time employment can be secured in their home communities will be invited to spend half of their time in the local high school, receiving guidance and instruction related to their present jobs or the kind of work they wish to do in the future. Youth for whom private employment cannot be arranged will be encouraged to accept part-time work with public, charitable, or other nonprofit agencies, compensation to be provided by the agency or by the

sponsors of the counseling service. They will, of course, be transferred to private employment as soon as the opportunity occurs.

To meet the peculiar needs and interests of some of the unemployed youth, resident work camps will also be established to provide practical experience in public welfare enterprises, such as forestry operations, land surveys, soil-conservation activities, game and fish control, and building projects. Boys and girls will remain in the camps for whatever period of time may be desirable, considering their individual needs and the opportunity for regular employment. They will receive a moderate wage, as well as board and lodging.

Successful development of the project of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction would assuredly arouse nation-wide interest in promoting the use of school personnel and facilities to provide such obvious vocational advantages for young people whose opportunity for gainful employment is discouragingly limited because of their lack of preparation for the kinds of work available in the communities in which they live.

*Pupils of
school-
leaving age*

A report issued in November by the British Information Service explains the purposes and requirements of a recently adopted "Code of Regulations" for the secondary schools of Scotland, under which education authorities are required to

prepare outlines of work for pupils who do not attend school beyond the age of fifteen.

Pupils who leave at fifteen do not have to take an external examination to mark the end of their three years in secondary school. Their course must be complete in itself, and not an abridgment of the full five-year secondary course. The Scottish Education Department has sent to the authorities a circular suggesting types of courses suitable for pupils who intend to leave school at fifteen or soon after. The circular outlines eleven suggested alternative courses to help the authorities plan their curriculums.

The courses adopted are expected to vary in character to suit varying capabilities, but each is expected to have as a common core the following subjects: physical education, English, history, geography, mathematics (at least in the form of generalized arithmetic), science, art, and music, with handicrafts for boys and domestic subjects for girls. In addition to the common core, each course will include a subject or group of subjects giving it a distinctive character—a foreign language, commercial subjects, technical subjects, domestic subjects, or English and social studies. The courses are to be modified and made more practical for less able pupils.

The circular recommends that a certain time each week be spent in activities chosen by the pupils. They may do group or individual work either in the classrooms or in the school library, or practical or field

work, or some form of co-operative activity, such as a project. The difficulties in organization that this would entail are recognized, but these are counterbalanced by the value of this kind of work as a means of creating worth-while interests which may be pursued, possibly through some form of further education.

GOOD NEWS FOR POOR READERS

AN INTERESTING REPORT of an experiment using films in practice exercises designed to increase the reading rate of students of high-school age was recently received from the University of Iowa. The experimental program was conducted in Cedar Rapids and Washington (Iowa) high schools under the direction of James B. Stroud, professor of education and psychology at the University of Iowa and director of reading instruction in communication skills.

The project developed fourteen reading films adapted to the interests and requirements of high-school students and prepared for use on the widely available 16-mm. sound film projector. The following excerpts from the report describe the nature of the experiment and the principal features of the films:

When the phrases of an interesting story are flashed across the screen in rapid succession, the student is required to read fairly large units of the story at a glance. Each day's story is flashed just a little faster than the last. Within fifteen or twenty days, the average student finds that he has doubled or trebled his reading speed, almost without knowing it.

The idea of teaching faster reading through the use of films is not new, but these films represent several improvements over earlier reading films. The Iowa films are easy on student eyes and the story material is interesting. But the best feature of the Iowa films is the fact that they are geared to high-school students, rather than college students and adults.

Professor Stroud points out that the high-school years are the ones in which students should learn rapid reading habits, when they are first confronted with much reading material. By the time they're ready for college—if they go to college—many of them will have been struggling with reading assignments for three or four years, and their high-school marks will show it. They are likely also to lose out on much reading for pleasure and may be hampered in their post-high-school jobs.

Iowa high schools may either rent or buy

the films and tests used with them, through John R. Hedges, associate director of audio-visual instruction at the University of Iowa.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO TEA

ON TUESDAY, February 20, 1951, from four to six o'clock in the afternoon, the Department of Education of the University of Chicago will give a tea for alumni and friends attending the meeting of the American Association of School Administrators at Atlantic City. The tea will be held in the Ozone Room of the Dennis Hotel. Alumni and friends are requested to remain for a brief conference with the faculty group.

NORMAN BURNS

WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by NORMAN BURNS, as-

sociate professor of education at the University of Chicago and Secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. E. C. BOLMEIER, associate professor of education at Duke University, compares various methods of reporting pupil progress and summarizes the method used in the Jackson, Mississippi, public schools. SEBASTIAN V. MARTORANA, assistant professor of education and consultant for junior colleges in the School of Education, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington, discusses the question of the future development of junior colleges, basing his conclusions on a study of population figures and the location of present junior colleges. HERBERT W. WEY, director of student teaching at Appalachian State Teachers College, Boone, North Carolina, presents the results of a study of the difficulties encountered by beginning teachers and proposes means of improving the pre-service and in-service programs of

teacher education in an effort to overcome these difficulties. PAULETTE HARTRICH, a staff member of the Association for Family Living, Chicago, Illinois, maintains that close co-operation between parents and teachers is essential in helping young people to solve their problems. LOUIS FOLEY, associate director of École Champlain, Ferrisburg, Vermont, considers the use and function of *and* in the American language. WALTER J. MOORE, assistant to the director of the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago, and WARREN C. SEYFERT, director of the same school and associate professor of education at the University of Chicago, present a list of selected references on secondary-school instruction.

Reviewers of books J. M. MCCALLISTER, dean of the Herzl Branch of the Chicago City Junior College. J. J. VALENTI, principal of the College High School, State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota. EDWIN S. LIDE, teacher of English in Lake View High School, Chicago, Illinois.

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PRINCIPLES PERTAINING TO MARKING AND REPORTING PUPIL PROGRESS

E. C. BOLMEIER

Duke University



AS DIRECTOR of secondary education in the city schools of Jackson, Mississippi, this writer was privileged to participate in the planning of a progressive system for reporting pupil progress. General features of the reporting system, as it was introduced, were described in an earlier issue of the *School Review*.¹ The revised system, following a period of experimentation, was reported in another journal.²

Numerous persons, responsible for the improvement of marking and reporting pupil progress in their own schools, have manifested an interest in these descriptive articles and have requested the specimen forms used for reporting pupil progress. As these requests are continuously received—even to the present date—they are cheerfully granted. There is some hesitancy, however, in sending the sample forms without an accompanying word of caution regarding their appropriateness for adoption in other school systems. Although this par-

ticular reporting system has proved to be highly satisfactory where it was first designed, it is more than likely to prove unsatisfactory in a school system which is entirely dissimilar. Due to the individuality of local school systems, practices of reporting pupil progress are usually more acceptable if they are adapted according to need, rather than adopted as is.

No progressive school is likely to adopt a marking and reporting plan precisely as developed in another school system. A more common and less objectionable practice is to acquire an accumulation of reporting forms used in various school systems and to design for local use a new form which embodies the most striking features of a number of the forms received, although this patchwork type of reporting system is not likely to prove desirable either. A composite form such as this would be lacking in creativeness and perhaps in applicability to local school needs.

BASIC PRINCIPLES

The best assurance of a satisfactory marking and reporting system is to develop it on the basis of needs and sound principles. A first step, there-

¹ E. C. Bolmeier, "An Analytical Appraisal Report of Pupil Progress," *School Review*, LI (May, 1943), 292-99.

² E. C. Bolmeier, "Reporting Pupil Progress," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (April, 1946), 78-84.

fore, is to outline a set of principles. Many of the principles may be gleaned from educational literature dealing with the problems. A school staff which is undertaking the task of improving the marking and reporting system might, however, formulate at least some of the principles itself. The purpose of this article is to set forth some of the basic principles of reporting and marking which might be helpful in guiding local school systems in their endeavors.

Principle 1: The marking and reporting system should be in harmony with the philosophy of education held by the school for which the reporting system is to be used.

If the philosophy of the school is merely to promulgate competition for "marks" among all pupils, regardless of their interests, aptitudes, or experiences, the traditional report card, generally common a half-century ago and still found in certain school systems today, is perhaps the most useful in accomplishing the intended purpose. The traditional report card, with its ruled spaces to record scholastic marks in terms of percentages each month, affords a convenient device for "separating the sheep from the goats." Only simple arithmetical computations are required to determine—even to the third decimal place—who is to head the honor roll or to assume the coveted role of valedictorian.

Not many intelligent persons are likely to favor such an antiquated practice of reporting pupil progress, even though it might be strictly in

accord with the philosophy of education held by the patrons and educational staff of the school system. The fundamental difficulty in this instance is with the philosophy of education, and the mere revision of a report card is not likely to rectify the situation.

The proper procedure is first to acquire or to improve the philosophy of education. Any serious group thinking and acting along this line by a school staff would probably result in a formulated set of educational objectives for the school. Presumably, one of the main objectives would be to permit, encourage, and assist each pupil to discover, cultivate, and develop his interests and aptitudes to the greatest possible degree, limited only by the inherited capacity of the individual. Where such philosophy prevails, a competitive marking system, which compares pupils' standings without consideration of individual differences, is out of place.

Principle 2: The marking and reporting system should be designed and utilized primarily for the purpose of benefiting the pupil rather than the teacher.

The soundness of this principle is somewhat dependent on the acceptance of the first principle. If the educational philosophy holds that the school exists for the benefit of the pupil, it might be properly concluded that the appropriateness or usefulness of a marking and reporting system is measured by the extent to which it benefits the pupil.

Too often teachers employ the re-

port card as a means of rewarding or penalizing pupils. When only a single composite mark is recorded, it is especially easy and tempting for the teacher to let personal likes and dislikes enter into the marking. The report card may be held over the pupil's head as a threat to force submission to the teacher's will. Consequently many pupils concentrate on attempting to please or to impress the teacher favorably rather than on doing the things which are more likely to be of benefit to them.

The real purpose of the marks recorded should be to indicate relative strengths and weaknesses of the pupil, his interests, aptitudes, and study habits, so that parents and counselors will have some bases on which to offer counsel and so that the pupil himself will be better prepared to chart his course. A good reporting system will be designed to serve as an incentive to all pupils regardless of variable abilities.

Principle 3: The marking and reporting system should be developed democratically with the co-operative participation of the person concerned.

It is obviously advantageous for some one person to be held responsible for the direction of the co-operative effort in the development of the reporting system. This person should have a background in the fields of educational psychology, mental hygiene, and administration of pupil personnel, as well as ability and experience in working with faculties and other groups. These personal qualifi-

cations, however, will be of no avail if the director of the project "puts on a one-man act," devises a reporting plan which he personally considers best, and then arbitrarily imposes it upon all the teachers to employ for appraising the progress of their pupils.

Teachers can hardly be expected to give their full support to a system developed without their participation, at least by representation. Moreover, they might not even understand the purposes for which the system is devised and the methods by which it is intended to be administered. Teachers not only take pride in the marking system which they help plan but also assume individual and group responsibility for its proper use and success.

Faculty participation does not necessarily mean mass activity. In order to avoid duplication of effort and confusion, it is usually desirable to organize committees, the members of which represent the entire school faculty. The methods for organizing the committees will vary. In secondary schools it is convenient and desirable to have departmental representation.

Although pupil progress is appraised exclusively by teachers, it should not be assumed that the teachers are the only persons to be represented on a working committee. The school principals, for example, are certainly concerned with the type of reporting system adopted, and they should have a voice in its development. In addition, the parent to whom

the report is usually sent also has an intimate concern regarding the appropriateness of the reporting system employed. Therefore, the parents should be represented on the committee, possibly by the president, or some other member, of the parent-teacher council. Other persons concerned, but usually disregarded, are the pupils themselves, whom the reporting system is primarily intended to serve. The membership of the president of the student council or some other student representative on the committee would apply democracy all along the line and, to that extent, enhance the probability of widespread approval.

Principle 4: The marking and reporting system should be sufficiently analytical to be meaningful and informative to pupils, parents, and counselors.

An outstanding objective of a reporting system should be to provide for a more analytical report of pupil progress than is possible with a single composite mark. Whether the mark is in terms of a numeral, percentile rank, quartile, alphabetical letter, or an isolated word such as "satisfactory" or "unsatisfactory," it is inadequate in revealing specific and significant information regarding school progress.

The various factors which a teacher usually takes into account in issuing marks are not necessarily correlative. A single mark, such as A, B, C, D, or F, therefore, does not reveal the teacher's estimate of the pupils' comparative accomplishments and attitudes. Moreover, there is variation in the importance that teachers attach

to various factors. Certain factors that are influential for some teachers in the determination of single composite marks are discounted, or even disregarded, by others.

That single marks frequently represent the teachers' variable interpretations of the meaning of school marks, rather than the pupils' actual comparative accomplishments, was demonstrated in an experiment.³ Twenty-four persons were requested to issue marks in terms of the traditional symbols (A, B, C, D, and F) to several hypothetical pupils for whom descriptive data were supplied. Great discrepancy occurred in the marks issued to these hypothetical pupils, one pupil being assigned all five of the possible marks.

Not only is the single-mark system inadequate and unreliable in informing pupils and parents of relative accomplishments, it fails to yield a pattern of information which is essential for effective guidance. If school marks are to be useful in the counseling of pupils, they must be analytical enough to indicate the teachers' appraisal of such uncorrelative factors as pertain to aptitude, attitude, effort, and various scholastic accomplishments. Certainly, single composite marks cannot serve that purpose.

Principle 5: The number and nature of the factors to be marked should bear a relationship to objectives which are considered germane to the course.

It would follow from this principle that, if the accomplishments on ex-

³ E. C. Bolmeier, "What's in a Mark?" *School Executive*, LXII (May, 1943), 25.

aminations constitute the sole objective of a course, a single mark would be adequate. Relatively few thinking persons, however, would agree that there are no other significant objectives of a course. An objective of a marking system to which most persons would subscribe is to recognize both achievement and attitude in the process of appraising pupil progress. It is reasoned that success in various pursuits of life is often determined as much by attitude and application of effort as by innate ability. Moreover, the opportunity for each pupil to win recognition, in at least some respects, is essential to good mental adjustment.

In the planning of a system for reporting pupil progress, the question arises, therefore, as to how complete and specific the report should be. The amount of time available to the teachers for assembling and reporting various items of pupil progress and the relative resources of the school for supplying printed forms are determinants in the selection of the factors to be reported.

Obviously, considerable merit exists in a detailed reporting system that provides different forms for the various school subjects in which pupil progress is appraised. The specific objectives that are inherent in various subjects can then be listed on the report form, thus providing opportunity for appraising the attainment of objectives as they pertain to a specific course. However, such detailed reporting would be expensive, both in the time required for teachers to make

out the reports and in the cost of the different report forms on which the appraisals would be made. The average school system would do well to provide a uniform report form which would list the most significant factors of appraisal applicable to most of the school subjects, such as (1) achievement on tests, (2) quality of recitation, (3) quality of completed assignments, (4) promptness in completing work, (5) persistence for mastery, (6) self-reliance in work, (7) application during study, and (8) attention to class activities. Factors which are not applicable to certain courses would not have to be checked.

Where a more detailed and separate report form for each subject is feasible, other factors could be added in accordance with the objectives conceived to be pertinent to the subject. For example, a report for English might include such factors as paragraph structure, sentence structure, vocabulary, diction, punctuation, spelling, handwriting, understanding of grammar, effectiveness in reading, range of reading, and acquaintance with literature. Comparable factors pertaining to other courses would be determined by departmental decision.

Principle 6: Each factor on the appraisal report should be marked with symbols which are immediately meaningful to all persons who have occasion to review the report.

A criticism of alphabetic marks, such as A, B, C, D, and F, is that different interpretations of their meaning are held by teachers, pupils, and parents. This is proved by the fact

that, when such symbols are used on the traditional report card, a key is frequently included that attempts to explain the meaning of the alphabetical marks in terms of numerals, which are themselves meaningless.

Percentile ranks and quartile ranks have more statistical significance but

pupil progress. Terms such as "very high," "high," "average," "low," and "very low" are comprehended by everyone possessing the slightest degree of literacy. It is not implied that the terms need be repeated for appraising each factor of pupil progress. They may be arranged in a rating de-

Jackson Public Schools Jackson, Mississippi JPS Form 36		SECONDARY SCHOOLS APPRAISAL REPORT					Term 1 2 3 4			
Pupil		School					Subject			
Factors To Be Rated	Very High	High	Average	Low	Very Low					
Achievement on tests										
Quality of recitation										
Quality of completed assignments										
Promptness in completing work										
Persistence for mastery										
Attention to class activities										
Number of days absent										
Comments (if any) on back of sheet										
Date						Instructor				

FIG. 1.—Report form used in secondary schools

would be difficult to compute for numerous factors and, furthermore, perhaps would not be very informative for the typical parent. Isolated words, such as "satisfactory" and "unsatisfactory," are entirely inadequate because they are not discriminating enough, especially if statistical computation for final marks is desired.

Simple words which denote relative degrees constitute the most meaningful symbols with which to express

vice so that the appraisals may be indicated by merely checking.

For illustrative purposes, a report form devised for the secondary schools of Jackson, Mississippi, is shown in Figure 1.

The profile arrangement of a report, as shown in the form, makes it possible for one to get an immediate impression of relative marks for the various factors included in the appraisal report.

Principle 7: The frequency of preparing reports and submitting them to the homes should be determined on the basis of relative values.

One of the primary considerations in the establishment of a reporting system has to do with the frequency of reports. Teachers, pupils, and parents disagree as to how many times a year appraisal reports should be sent to parents. Some believe that reports should be submitted at least once a month; whereas others contend that it is not necessary to issue reports more than once a year, other than for seriously maladjusted and failing pupils. There is agreement, however, among those persons who realize all the functions the teacher is expected to perform, that the more detailed the reports are to be, the less frequently teachers can prepare them without detracting from important teaching functions.

If the appraisal report is no more detailed than the one shown in this article, it would seem that four times a year, at nine-week intervals, is not too often for the reports to be issued. If the reports were prepared only four times a year, it is assumed that the teachers would avail themselves of the opportunity to clarify and supplement the ratings with written comments on the back of the appraisal report whenever they deemed it beneficial to do so. Conceivably, a pupil may rank low on some of the factors because of frequent absences from classes, defective vision or hearing, reading and speech defects, fatigue, or other causes which are observed by

the teacher and which should be brought to the attention of the parents. It is also possible that a teacher might wish to give an additional explanation of a pupil's "very high" ranking on some of the factors.

Teachers, as well as parents, frequently express the opinion that nine weeks is too long to wait before informing the parents that a pupil is doing unsatisfactory work. It is true that nine weeks, or even one week, is too long to wait, particularly if the unsatisfactory work results from the pupil's unfavorable attitude or from lack of application on his part. As soon as it becomes absolutely evident to the teacher that a pupil is wilfully neglecting his school work, the parents should be notified by a special report such as that illustrated in Figure 2. These special reports would be prepared at the discretion of the teacher and submitted to the principal's office before being mailed to the parents.

Principle 8: The manner in which the appraisal reports are submitted to the parents should be determined by the relative importance of economy and the assurance that they reach their intended destination.

In some school systems the reports are mailed directly to the homes. The purpose of this practice supposedly is to make certain that the reports reach the parents without alteration of the marks recorded by the teachers. Aside from the questionable psychological propriety of that procedure, the cost of mailing raises another question concerning its practicality. If the appraisal reports were mailed to two

thousand homes four times a year, the postage alone would amount to several hundred dollars. Also, the time consumed in the clerical process of addressing envelopes would be no trivial item.

A more justifiable practice is to intrust the pupil with the delivery of the appraisal reports. After all, according to a principle stated earlier, the reports are designed primarily for the

sued to the pupils.

A still better scheme might be to have this information printed on a durable envelope, designed to hold all the appraisal reports to be issued during the year, and to mail that envelope to the home with the first issuance of reports. A brief article in the local newspaper, near the time the reports are issued, is also informative and conducive to better public relations.

JACKSON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI

SPECIAL APPRAISAL REPORT

School.....Date.....

Parent or Guardian.....

.....is doing unsatisfactory work in

..... Since this fact is already evident, we are not waiting until the regular term Appraisal Reports are due to inform you. It is hoped that you will discuss the matter immediately with (him, her) in order to aid the school in improving the situation.

Teacher.....Phone.....

Principal.....

FIG. 2.—Form used to notify parents of a pupil's unsatisfactory school work

benefit of the pupil. Whether or not the pupil submits the reports to his parents will depend partially upon the enlightenment he receives with respect to their intended use. Moreover, the obligation of the pupil to his parents in such matters is primarily the concern of the parents.

Perhaps a satisfactory compromise would be to mail a mimeographed announcement to the home at the beginning of the school year, stating the purposes of the reports and specifying the dates on which they are to be is-

On one side of the envelope, routine items, such as the name of the pupil, school, class, principal, and home-room teacher would be filled in. On the other side of the envelope, information similar to the following might be printed:

The enclosed appraisal reports have been designed to reveal to parents an estimate of the pupil's accomplishments and study habits. One report is prepared for each subject the pupil is pursuing. They need not be signed by the parent or returned to the school.

The ratings are based on the teachers'

observations and records. Omission of a rating on any factor indicates that the teacher has not obtained sufficient evidence to make an appraisal.

Brief comments are written on the back of the rating sheets only when the teacher considers explanation of certain ratings necessary.

These reports do not specify credit for a particular term but, rather, indicate the quality of work being done and serve as an index of what final accomplishment at the end of the year is likely to be. The accumulation of ratings of the factors, combined with the results of final examinations, will determine the final mark.

Please retain this envelope, so that subsequent appraisal reports may be filed and referred to when desired. Appraisal reports will be submitted four times a year at nine-week intervals.

Principle 9: The appraisal reports may be used to compute whatever final marks are required but not to revive the antiquated principle of competition.

The analytical appraisal report, as described in this article, has a distinct advantage over the single-mark type of report because appraisals may be made on a number of uncorrelative factors. If six factors are rated, six marks, instead of one, have been recorded for a single subject.

Although these analytical and meaningful reports indicate relative attitudes, habits, abilities, and accomplishments of the pupil, frequently parents will want to know what the various ratings mean in terms of a "final mark." They have been accustomed to the competitive type of marking and find difficulty in comparing one pupil with another unless single alphabetical or numerical marks are recorded.

Even the analytical appraisal report, as has been described, can be misused by publicizing comparative ratings of pupils of variable capacities and environments. For example, the attempt might be made to publicize an honor roll of pupils having the greatest number of "very high's" recorded on the appraisal reports. This procedure reverts to the competitive characteristic of the traditional marking system, which the more progressive system attempts to eliminate.

Since colleges still require transcripts of credit in terms of the meaningless alphabetical symbols, high schools have no alternative other than to supply them. Therefore, marks of A, B, C, D, and F usually must be computed.

The appraisal report, with its rating device, readily lends itself to this computation. Ratings may be transmuted to numerical values or credit points on the following basis: "Very High," 5; "High," 4; "Average," 3; "Low," 2; and "Very Low," 1. Some school systems might wish to apply the computation to only the first three factors in the appraisal report shown in this article. If final examinations are administered, the results of the examinations might be weighted and combined with the average credit point obtained from the appraisal reports. The rank arrangement of accumulated credit on a distribution sheet and the demarcation into groups of A, B, C, D, and F require only the simplest of statistical procedures. This technique may seem like a laborious way to compute the less meaningful

alphabetical marks but, as long as colleges require these marks and attach so much importance to them, the procedure should be as scientific as possible.

Principle 10: The marking and reporting system should be evaluated continuously and modified, when deemed desirable, in accordance with the same democratic principles by which it was originally designed.

It is unlikely that a perfect marking and reporting system has ever been, or will ever be, developed. Even though a system may be considered highly satisfactory when it is introduced, its appropriateness may wane if it is continued long without modification. It is not implied here that the system should be radically changed from year to year. On the contrary, planning and developing the system with the idea of retaining the general basic features for a relatively long period is desirable. Nevertheless, after a reporting system has been used for some time, occasional modifications might be desirable.

A democratic procedure is just as necessary in the revision of the marking system as it is in the original development. In fact, it is advisable to have a representative committee evaluate the system each year and to make recommendations regarding needed revisions.

Perhaps a word of caution is in order at this point. The committee must be truly representative of the entire teaching and administrative staffs. Otherwise, a reactionary committee

might make recommendations which, if approved, would be injurious to the system. Of course, the school officials could veto the proposals made by the committee. To do so, however, might appear undemocratic and perhaps would be detrimental to further effort.

The danger of a misguided majority's holding wrong opinions and, consequently, making wrong decisions can be greatly minimized by a thorough job of in-service training. If teachers are to assume authority in making important decisions, they must be qualified to do so. School officials must accept the responsibility of seeing that the persons who recommend changes in the reporting system have (1) access to the latest professional literature dealing with the problem, (2) descriptions and specimen forms of reporting practices in other comparable school systems, (3) findings of experimental investigations conducted at the local level, and (4) the opportunity to discuss matters with the official authorized to make the final decisions. It is dangerous to intrust a committee to make revisions if the members are not familiar with the history of the marking and reporting system as developed in their own school. The committee members should be especially familiar with the earlier accepted objectives of their school's system. Therefore, a descriptive account of the local marking and reporting system, including an annual report, a handbook of school regulations, or a specially designed pamphlet, should be prepared periodically.

WHERE AND HOW NEW COMMUNITY COLLEGES ARE LIKELY TO DEVELOP

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SIZE OF CITIES AND LOCATION OF EXISTING COLLEGES

IF EVERY CITY of 5,000 or more persons were to be the site of a local public junior college, there would be ten times as many institutions as are now in operation. There would be a five-fold increase if every city of 10,000 or more persons were to have a local community college. There would be double the present number if junior colleges were located in every city of 25,000 or more. The growth in number of community colleges implied by these figures is little short of astounding.

The potential for future development of community colleges suggested by such a line of thinking is depicted graphically by the data in Table 1. Here is shown a comparison of the numbers of cities of over 5,000, 10,000, and 25,000 persons and the number of localities that are centers for local public junior colleges in each region of the country. This tabulation includes all institutions reported in the *Junior College Directory, 1949* to be under "local" or "district" auspices. Inspection of the evidence presented in the table shows that wide disparity exists between the number of cities in which local junior colleges are actually in op-

eration and the number of centers of concentration of population.

The potential for development of community colleges in a number of regions is even more impressive than for the nation as a unit. For example, in the New England region there are approximately seventy times more cities of 5,000 or more persons than there are cities with local public junior colleges, and in the Middle Atlantic regions there are approximately ninety times more. On the other hand, it can be observed that there are more local public junior-college centers in the Southwest Central, Northwest Central, and Pacific regions than there are cities of 25,000 or more persons in these areas. This does not mean, however, that there is junior-college opportunity present in every city of this size in these regions, for a considerable number of the cities in which junior colleges are located have populations of less than 10,000.

Even if all cities of 5,000-9,999 were discounted as of insufficient size to support an adequate community-college program, the conclusion that the potential for future development and location of community colleges lies in small urban centers, cities of fewer than 25,000 persons, still holds. There

are 665 cities ranging in size from 10,000 to 24,999 in the nation, a number over one and a half times greater than the number of cities with 25,000

TABLE 1
NUMBERS OF CITIES IN THE UNITED STATES
WITH POPULATIONS OF OVER 5,000, 10,000,
AND 25,000* AND NUMBER OF CITIES OF
LOCATION OF LOCAL PUBLIC JUNIOR COL-
LEGES, BY GEOGRAPHIC REGIONS

REGION	NUMBER OF CITIES WITH POPULA- TIONS OF—			NUMBER OF CITIES WITH LOCAL PUBLIC JUNIOR COL- LEGES
	5,000 or More	10,000 or More	25,000 or More	
New England.....	205	140	61	3
Middle Atlantic....	456	243	80	5
South Atlantic....	211	114	46	5
Southeast Central..	110	51	20	5
Southwest Central..	195	84	29	37
Northeast Central..	433	229	101	22
Northwest Central..	203	97	29	60
Mountain.....	81	37	11	7
Pacific.....	147	81	34	58
All regions.....	2,041	1,076	411	202

* According to the Census of 1940.

or more population. Moreover, the conclusion stated takes on greater strength when the probability is noted that in most large cities, those of 50,000 and over, some opportunity for post-high-school education already exists.

ENROLMENTS IN EXISTING COMMUNITY COLLEGES

In terms of quantitative increase, the potential for development of community-college programs clearly lies in relatively small urban localities. The question arises: How can community-college programs be developed in

small localities in a way to insure sound and complete educational programs? In areas of relatively small concentrations of population, student enrolments are likely to be small, and such practical factors as the personal and material resources available in the community are certain to be major considerations influencing the establishment of a community-college program. In fact, material, practical matters may often outweigh basic psychological and educational arguments in determining whether a community college will be established at all.

The fact that enrolments in local public junior colleges established in less populous urban centers may be expected to be small is not a reason for taking a pessimistic view of the feasibility of operation of such programs. To support this statement, it may be pointed out that local public junior colleges are, in general, small institutions. As seen in Table 2, the median enrolment of regular day students in the 210 local public junior colleges listed in the *Junior College Directory, 1949*, was 292.6 students. Again, all colleges reported to be under "local" or "district" auspices are included in the tabulation. Median enrolments varied from region to region—from 78 students in the New England region to 725 students in the Pacific states. Even in the Pacific and the Northwest Central regions, where some local public institutions have enrolments of several thousand regular day students, the typical regular student enrolment characterizes the local public

institutions as small educational institutions.

Even when enrolments of all types of students—special and adult students as well as regular day students—were tabulated, the median enrol-

TABLE 2

MEDIAN NUMBERS OF REGULAR STUDENTS AND OF ALL STUDENTS ENROLLED IN LOCAL PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGES, FALL, 1947-48, BY GEOGRAPHIC REGIONS

REGION	NUMBER OF JUNIOR COLLEGES	MEDIAN ENROLMENT	
		Regular Students*	All Students*
New England.....	3	78.0	147.0
Middle Atlantic.....	5	235.0	332.0
South Atlantic.....	5	280.0	280.0
Southeast Central....	5	333.0	541.0
Southwest Central....	39	291.7	458.3
Northeast Central....	24	525.0	625.0
Northwest Central....	62	180.0	258.3
Mountain.....	7	225.0	378.0
Pacific.....	60	725.0	862.5
All regions.....	210	292.6	455.8

* In a region where fewer than ten junior colleges were located, the actual enrolment of the middle school in the distribution of junior colleges by size of enrolment is reported as the median for the region.

† Includes special and adult students as well as regular day students.

ment in local public junior colleges did not reach five hundred. The median enrolment reported in Table 2 for the 210 institutions in the nation is 455.8 students. Again, the variation of medians for the several regions is large, with 147 reported for the New England institutions and 862.5 for those in the Pacific area.

Thus, it is seen that, typically, local public junior colleges are small institutions. They must, in order to fulfil the essential services which demanded

their establishment in the beginning, find ways and means of accomplishing their objectives without unduly taxing the resources of the local community. As has been already pointed out, this situation is no reason for being pessimistic about the promise of community-college development. Rather, it is a challenge which tests the validity of the arguments often made in favor of widespread establishment of local community colleges.

INTEGRATION BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOLS AND EXISTING COLLEGES

Superintendents of schools and other leaders in communities considering inauguration of a thirteenth- and fourteenth-year program should, therefore, seek to establish a school organization which is conducive to ease of establishment and to economy in operation of the program and, at the same time, provides the most psychologically and educationally sound offering that is possible in the locality. In terms of such criteria, plans of grade organization which utilize existing facilities provided for high-school years and which build on, or integrate with, these lower years have been shown to be meritorious as well as feasible.

In fact, a recent study by the American Association of Junior Colleges which made inquiry into the types of plant and physical facilities being used by junior colleges of all classifications found that the largest proportion, approximately 60 per cent, of the local public junior colleges reporting were

housed co-operatively with high schools. This is not surprising in view of the generalization pointed out in the preceding discussion—that local public junior colleges are generally small institutions—and in view of the philosophy of operation of most local

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGES OF 143 LOCAL PUBLIC* JUNIOR
COLLEGES OF DIFFERENT SIZES HAVING
CERTAIN PROVISIONS FOR HOUSING†

ENROLMENT OF REGULAR DAY STUDENTS	SEPARATE FROM HIGH- SCHOOL YEARS‡	ASSOCI- ATED WITH HIGH- SCHOOL YEARS§	OTHER PRO- VI- SIONS	TOTAL	
				Num- ber	Per Cent
Fewer than 300	21.5	78.5	65	100.0
300-599 . .	42.1	55.3	2.6	38	100.0
600-999 . .	68.2	31.8	22	100.0
1,000 and over	77.8	16.7	5.5	18	100.0
All sizes	41.3	57.3	1.4	143	100.0

* Colleges classified as "local" and "district" in the *Junior College Directory, 1949*.

† Adapted from unpublished data compiled by the Research Office of the American Association of Junior Colleges, June, 1948.

‡ Either entirely separate from high-school years on separate sites, or entirely separate but on same or adjoining site.

§ Degree of association ranged from housing partly in separate buildings and partly in buildings housing high-school years to combined and co-operative use with high-school years of same building or buildings.

community colleges, a philosophy which brings them into close working relationship with lower school years.

The relation between size of enrolment and tendency to house the junior-college years with the high-school years is indicated by the data in Table 3. Nearly eight out of every ten institutions of fewer than 300 students were housed in association with high schools. Of those with 300-599 students, approximately 55 per cent were housed in this way.

From the data shown in Table 3, it is apparent that the practice of housing the junior-college years separately from the high-school years is not a general practice for local public institutions of fewer than 600 students. Not until the category of 600-999 students is reached in the table is it observed that a majority of the institutions were housed separately from the high school. Among institutions of 600-999 students, approximately seven out of ten colleges were housed separately from the high-school years, while the corresponding proportion for the large colleges of 1,000 students and over is nearly eight out of ten.

Although a majority of these public community colleges of 600 or more regularly enrolled students were housed separately from high-school years, one must not forget that an organization which separates the junior-college years from high-school years is not conducive to close integration of the educational programs of the two institutions. Further, it is a larger drain on the personal and material resources of the community. Furthermore, necessary practices to overcome a disadvantageous plan of organization, if followed at all, are often expensive, cumbersome, and only partially successful. These considerations, in addition to the fact that three-tenths of the institutions with 600-999 students, and one-sixth of those of 1,000 students and over were housed in association with high-school years, raise doubts as to the desirability of a policy of separation of junior-college

years from high-school years in local public community colleges.

A FAVORABLE TYPE OF ORGANIZATION

In support of the assertions made in the foregoing paragraph, it is apropos to refer to two authoritative sources. One is the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, in which the statement is made:

The senior high school and the first two years of college, particularly the liberal arts college, are similar in purpose, and there is much duplication of content in their courses. The program of the community college must dovetail closely therefore with the work of the senior high school.¹

In another place in the same report is found the further comment:

It must be recognized that transition from one institution to another is bound to involve some difficulty. Co-ordination cannot be perfect if one institution is under one authority and the other institution under another authority. But for many students the end of the twelfth year falls in the middle of a program, while the end of the fourteenth year falls at the end of one program and the beginning of another. General studies, as distinguished from concentration or specialization, commonly terminate at the end of the fourteenth year. Hence the transition at that point to a different institution involves much less of a problem of co-ordination than at a point two years earlier.²

Evidence is at hand to indicate that, of the several plans of grade organization which may be established,

¹ *Organizing Higher Education*, p. 7. *Higher Education for American Democracy*, Vol. III. A Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947.

² *Ibid.*, p. 13.

the 6-4-4 plan gives the most promise of accomplishing the desired objective of co-ordination and close integration of the work of the present senior high school with that of the thirteenth and fourteenth years. Concluding a comprehensive appraisal of the several ways of organizing public school systems to include the junior-college years, Koos states:

The main conclusion is that the 6-4-4 plan is at once the most effective and the most economical means of bringing the full advantage of the junior high school and the junior college to the community. In weighing the significance of this conclusion, one is well advised to bear in mind that it is infrequent for improvement and financial economy to be joined in the same reorganization.³

That this conclusion has the support of the largest proportion of city school superintendents was shown by a recent survey of national scope completed by the present writer.⁴ Several findings of this study are pertinent to the present discussion. It should first be noted that the largest proportion of city superintendents supported the 6-4-4 plan, not only for general adoption in school systems including thirteenth and fourteenth years, but for use in the situations which the superintendents were currently heading. Approximately 40 per cent of the superintendents who were in favor of in-

³ Leonard V. Koos, *Integrating High School and College: The Six-Four-Four Plan at Work*, p. 187. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

⁴ Sebastian V. Martorana, "Superintendents View Plans of Grade Organization," *School Review*, LVIII (May, 1950), 272.

cluding Grades XIII and XIV in the public school system supported the 6-4-4 plan for general adoption—a proportion nearly one and a third times greater than the proportion favoring the 6-3-3-2 plan of organization.

Of particular import is the fact that a positive relation was found between the size of the city in which the administrators were working and the plan of grade organization preferred for general adoption. In cities of 5,000–9,999 persons, the proportion of superintendents who favored the 6-4-4 plan was one and one-half times greater than that representing the nearest competing plan, the 6-3-3-2. The margin decreased in cities with populations of 10,000–24,999. There the percentage of administrators supporting the 6-4-4 plan was approximately one and one-third times that of superintendents preferring the 6-3-3-2 plan. In cities of 25,000–49,999 persons and cities of 50,000–99,999 persons, the two plans were about equally supported. However, in both cases there existed a slight margin in favor of the 6-4-4 plan. In the largest cities, those of 100,000 persons or more, the 6-3-3-2 plan was favored by 48.2 per cent of the respondents, while 33.3 per cent preferred the 6-4-4 plan.

The relation between city size and preferences of superintendents resulted, no doubt, from the recognition by school administrators that in smaller cities the offering at public expense of a defensible program of education through Grade XIV is feasible

only through close association with the high school. On the other hand, in large city systems, where enrolments are large and facilities more plentiful, an arrangement which keeps the junior-college years separate from the high-school units is more practicable.

Mere practicability of a plan, however, does not completely justify its use. The fundamental educational and psychological advantages of close integration of junior-college years with high-school years, as pointed out by the quotation cited from the Report of the President's Commission, should not be overlooked. An understanding of the fundamental advantages which are held by the 6-4-4 plan is evidently the explanation for the strong support given the 6-4-4 plan among the superintendents of schools in the larger cities.

The logical conclusion which results from the three bodies of data presented in this article is that the 6-4-4 plan offers the most promising solution of the problem of organizing community-college programs in small urban centers. The first section of the article established that, typically, local public community colleges are small institutions; the second, that such community-college programs are, characteristically, housed in association with lower secondary units; and the third, that the 6-4-4 plan is becoming recognized as the plan of grade organization which most economically and efficiently facilitates integration of high-school and community-college years and thus aids the extension of

public school systems in relatively small cities to include the thirteenth and fourteenth years.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

From the evidence presented in this article, there develops also the conclusion that the potential for future development of community colleges lies along two lines.

The first is continuation of the practice of establishing local public community colleges in relatively small cities. Since nearly half the cities of more than 5,000 persons in the nation still have populations of fewer than 10,000 and practically another third range from 10,000 to 24,999 persons, it is quite evident that, if community colleges are to increase greatly in numbers, the increase will have to take place in these relatively small centers.

This development is not likely to give the best results in terms of educational and psychological excellence of the community-college program and

in terms of economical use of community resources, unless a second desirable line of evolution is also followed. This would be a policy of school administration which seeks to integrate the program of the upper high-school years with that provided in the community college, thus utilizing the faculty personnel and the material facilities to be found in the community when extension of the school program is first considered. The 6-4-4 plan of grade organization is gaining recognition as that with greatest promise of accomplishing this objective.

The 6-4-4 plan, then, established and operating in the many hundreds of relatively small cities in the nation in which there is as yet no opportunity beyond the high school constitutes the potential for future development of community colleges. With implementation of this twofold evolutionary development, the claim of the community college that it brings more educational opportunity to more people will be fulfilled.

DIFFICULTIES OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

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PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

APPALACHIAN State Teachers College, in order to gather information which might serve as a basis for the improvement of its pre-service and in-service programs of teacher education, undertook a comprehensive study of the difficulties of beginning teachers. It was felt that this knowledge would furnish data which would help to vitalize the over-all college training program. Two lists of difficulties, totaling 2,537, were reported by 85 first-year teachers and their supervisors or principals.

A few examples of what the beginning teachers had to say follow:

I am having difficulty trying to keep pupils in my classes from cheating, and, when I talked to my principal about it, he told me I ought to feel flattered that the pupils cared enough about passing to cheat.

I am having difficulty trying to teach chemistry without any equipment other than that which I can improvise.

I have difficulty because there is no one to whom I can go for assistance and advice in dealing with my problems.

Although we have six periods each day, I am teaching seven subjects as well as sponsoring twice as many outside activities as any other teacher.

I am having difficulty because I made the mistake of dating high-school girls.

I am having difficulty meeting the needs of my pupils who have such a wide range of abilities.

I am having difficulty getting away from relying on the textbook method of teaching.

The following examples indicate what some of the principals reported:

This young teacher has difficulty because of her poor teaching voice.

Resents criticism from me as to how she could improve her teaching.

Has difficulty because he does not organize and prepare his work adequately.

Has difficulty because he fails to have enough pupil activity.

Has difficulty because she assigns new work without first giving the pupils an understanding of how to do the work.

Discipline is her main difficulty.

Is handicapped by constant fear of political influence that causes rapid turnover of faculty.

THE STUDY

The participants.—Ninety-five secondary-school teachers who graduated from Appalachian State Teachers College in 1948 were doing their first-year teaching during the school year of 1948-49. During this period, these 95 teachers were asked to report at three regular intervals the difficulties they were encountering as first-year teachers. At the same time that the beginning teachers made their reports, their

principals or supervisors reported what they considered to be the difficulties that these young teachers were experiencing. All participants in the study were given assurance that the information which they reported would be strictly confidential. Participation in the study was left on a voluntary basis and, of the 95 beginning teachers eligible to take part, complete returns were received from 85 of the teachers and their principals. This high percentage of returns is evidence of the interest taken in the study by the participants.

Method.—As a check on the validity of the reports of the individual teachers and principals, two visits were made by a college representative to nearly all beginning teachers and their principals during the school year. During these visits the college representative offered whatever supervisory assistance he or the principal felt might be of value to the beginning teacher. Quite often the college representative would spend a half-day with a teacher who wanted assistance with his problems.

After the information about the difficulties of the first-year teachers had been collected, a system was worked out whereby the data could be classified into categories. The difficulties were first divided into three general areas, each containing difficulties of a similar nature. Difficulties in each of these three general areas were further broken down into 17 major categories and, finally, into 55 specific categories. This meant that the beginning teach-

ers and their principals reported a total of 2,537 difficulties, which were classified into 55 specific categories.

Based on the composite reports of beginning teachers and their principals, nearly half, or 47.2 per cent, of the difficulties these teachers encountered are related to only eight of the 55 specific types of difficulties. These eight types of difficulties, ranked in descending order of the number of times reported, are:

1. Handling problems of pupil control and discipline (reported 270 times)
2. Adjusting to deficiencies in school equipment, physical conditions, and materials (reported 234 times)
3. Adjusting to the teaching assignment (reported 179 times)
4. Adapting to the needs, interests, and abilities of pupils (reported 127 times)
5. Motivating pupil interest and response (reported 116 times)
6. Keeping records and making reports (reported 90 times)
7. Handling broader aspects of teaching techniques (reported 86 times)
8. Being able to establish and maintain proper relations with supervisors and administrators (reported 80 times)

ANALYSIS OF DIFFICULTIES

Discipline.—Although almost everyone hates to admit it, controlling pupils and maintaining proper conduct in class is the difficulty that beginning teachers confront most often. Without a doubt, this difficulty is frequently the direct outgrowth of the teacher's personality, of poor methods of teaching, or of poor teaching conditions. However, neither the beginning

teacher nor his principal seemed to see beyond the immediate problem, which was a noisy and unruly classroom.

Adjusting to deficiencies.—The fact that adjusting to deficiencies in school equipment, physical conditions, and materials ranked second in frequency is certainly an indication that the secondary schools do not have adequate facilities and equipment. Beginning teachers are being trained by teacher-education institutions in the use of the most modern teaching aids. These teachers then go out to teach in public schools in which they find little equipment other than textbooks.

There are two solutions to this problem. First, teacher-training institutions must train future teachers to make materials, to collect free and inexpensive materials and equipment, and to make use of the community itself as a laboratory. A great deal of this can be done during the four-year training program. Second, secondary-school administrators must place stronger emphasis on providing more and better teaching facilities and teaching materials.

Adjusting to teaching assignments.—Principals are interested in having a good secondary school, one that will move along smoothly; yet, in many cases, they continue to overload the beginning teacher and to give him many of the unwanted jobs. In this way the principal creates problems for himself. The young teacher has not learned how to say "No." He not only accepts things he cannot do but also accepts more than he can do. This

problem could be easily corrected if the principal would see to it that the beginning teacher is considered first in making teaching assignments and is given the lightest teaching load possible.

Adapting to and motivating pupils.—The next two most frequently reported difficulties—adapting to the needs, interests, and abilities of pupils and motivating pupil interest and response—are indications that the experiences of the beginning teachers in student teaching did not acquaint them with the typical situations which are usually found in our public schools. One solution to this type of difficulty would be more practical experience for the teacher trainee during his four-year training program. Some beginning teachers taught classes as long as three months before they found out that many students in their classes were unable to comprehend the subject matter which the textbook contained. This is definite proof that they were not aware of the fact that students' needs and abilities differ greatly. Beginning teachers must realize that the time they spend at the start of the course in determining the needs, interests, and abilities of their pupils will pay great dividends later in the year. Where does the beginning teacher get the idea that, unless he completes a textbook by the end of the year, he has not satisfactorily completed the course?

Keeping records and making reports.—The next difficulty—keeping records and making reports—was one

that proved to be a big obstacle at the beginning of the year when the new teachers were urgently in need of time to devote to other tasks. This again is a problem that could have been avoided by giving teacher trainees experience with these records and reports during their training experience.

Handling broader aspects.—The difficulty—handling broader aspects of teaching techniques—is another indication that reading about methods of teaching in a textbook does not assure the young teacher's ability to go out and use these methods. Again, this points to a need for more practical experience during the four-year teacher-education program.

Establishing and maintaining proper relations with supervisors and administrators.—A direct reflection is cast upon the supervision program in our secondary schools by the beginning teachers' feeling that it was difficult to establish and maintain proper relations with their supervisors and administrators. This difficulty was encountered eighty times during the year by the eighty-five beginning teachers.

Over and over again, the beginning teacher reported that his supervisor and administrator had not as yet said how he was getting along. Invariably, during visits to the beginning teachers, the college representative would be confronted with the question, "How am I getting along? My principal has never told me anything one way or the other." It is true that administrators frequently have little

time for supervision, but a word of encouragement from the administrator to the beginning teacher would not take long and would have fine results.

Further evidence of the poor supervisory relations between the beginning teacher and his supervisor is shown by a comparison of the reports of these teachers and their administrators. Aside from the difficulty of handling problems of pupil control and discipline, the administrators and beginning teachers are not in agreement concerning the most frequently encountered difficulties. In addition, the teachers reported many more difficulties than their supervisors reported for them. If there had been proper supervision of the beginning teachers, it seems that there would have been closer agreement between the administrator and the teachers about the number and types of difficulties the teachers encountered.

The findings of this study have shown deficiencies both in the college training of future teachers and in the orientation, induction, and supervision of beginning teachers in the teaching profession. What is to be done about it?

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

A new program for student teachers.—As stated before, Appalachian State Teachers College undertook this study to gather information to use as a basis for improvements in the teacher-training program. We are now in the process of making improvements. The one-hour-a-day student-teaching pro-

gram, which the findings of this study have proved inadequate, is being revised and broadened to include supervised, professional laboratory experiences in the same activities in which beginning teachers engage. Under this new program, the student teacher devotes the full day for twelve weeks to his student teaching. He lives the life of a teacher without diversional interests on the college campus. This new program of student teaching has a definite advantage over the one-hour-a-day program in that it gives student teachers opportunity to work with boys and girls in extra-curriculum activities, in study halls, in cafeterias, in home rooms, in the library, on the playgrounds, and at school parties. It enables them to become acquainted with the organization and administration of the secondary school and to see how a school relates its program to the life of the community.

New laboratory experiences.—In addition to the introduction of a new program of student teaching, the program of professional laboratory experiences in college prior to student teaching is being broadened so as to develop and to strengthen in the teacher trainee those traits that are necessary for success in teaching. These laboratory experiences will be inaugurated in the Freshman year and will continue throughout the four-year program. The laboratory experiences will be integrated with all phases of the college program and will give the future teacher opportunity to observe and work with the child, the school,

and the community while his courses leading up to student teaching show him how all these are interrelated.

Improving pre-service courses.—The faculty of the college is making use of the findings of this investigation to improve the organization and content of pre-service courses. The actual difficulties that beginning teachers encounter are being discussed and efforts are being made to avoid or to eliminate as many of these difficulties as possible. For example, a unit on how to keep records and make reports is being included in one of the methods courses. This unit is followed by practical experience in the keeping of records and the making of reports during the full-time student-teaching period. This alone should help to eliminate one of the most frequently encountered difficulties of the first-year teacher.

Speech training.—Since the lack of an effective teaching voice was a problem that caused the beginning teacher much difficulty, special attention will be given to the development of better speech on the part of the teacher trainee. Courses in both speech training and speech correction will be offered.

New supervision for student teachers.—The supervising teachers in the demonstration schools and in the off-campus laboratory schools are being encouraged to make use of data collected in this study in directing the learning experiences of the student teachers. Special efforts are being made by supervising teachers to help

the student teachers recognize the real nature of their difficulties.

Student teachers are now assigned to their student teaching on an individual basis. The director of student teaching, who has made a thorough survey of teaching conditions in the demonstration schools and in the off-campus laboratory schools, attempts to place the student teacher in the situation which will be most profitable to the trainee. When the prospective student teacher has made application for student teaching, the director of student teaching collects all available information concerning the applicant. After studying the information and holding conferences with the student, the director makes the assignment on the basis of the needs, interests, and abilities of the individual student in relation to the characteristics of the laboratory situation.

Level of subject matter.—It was found that, although many beginning teachers knew their subject matter on a college level and were able to pass advanced courses in their fields, they were often not proficient in their subject matter at the high-school level. For example, a beginning teacher might have known calculus, but he did not know enough plane geometry to teach it in high school. Thus, in order to increase the future teacher's knowledge of the subjects he will

teach during his first year, special attention will be given to familiarize him with high-school textbooks and related materials in his field. A review of the subject matter on the high-school level will be conducted to parallel the college academic courses.

A follow-up program.—In addition to the changes that are already under way in the over-all teacher-education program, other recommendations based on the findings in this study have been made and are being given serious consideration. Among these is a follow-up program sponsored by the college to assist first-year teachers with their difficulties and to collect additional data similar to those revealed in this study.

It is felt that the changes being made in the teacher-training program will help to eliminate many of the difficulties which our beginning teachers have been experiencing. The next step is to work out better programs of orientation, induction, and supervision for teachers during their first year of teaching. This is a problem that secondary-school administrators will have to solve. There is no doubt that teachers must be given more consideration and help during their first year of teaching. They must be assisted in order to prevent some of them from failing and some from becoming discouraged and leaving the profession.

PARENT-TEACHER CO-OPERATION IN RELATION TO DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF YOUTH

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IN ORDER TO GUIDE the child successfully, both parents and teachers need to see him as a whole. They need to recognize the close interrelationship of home and school experiences and the effect that both have on the child's behavior and development. Tensions in the home affect school behavior, and, conversely, tensions in the classroom are often reflected at home.

Too often there is in our thinking a dichotomy that causes parents and teachers to work at cross-purposes. The teacher may consider the child only in relation to the classroom situation, while parents often fail to make allowances for the child's need to adjust to a new situation in the school experience. What are some of the conflicts, tensions, and normal developmental problems that are reflected in the school situation?

EVERY CHILD

All children, of whatever age, need to feel loved, protected, and accepted.

The infant who feels loved by his mother learns to love her in return. Gradually the sphere of his affection increases to include others in the family. As he grows, these positive feelings will be projected into his expand-

ing environment. The child who feels unloved turns back to himself for the gratification he cannot find in the outside world. He often grows to regard all adults with hostility. Disappointed in his earliest affectional needs, he builds a defense of seeming coldness and indifference.

The small child who feels protected and who knows that his parents will at all times take care of him gains the courage to move toward independence. Protection includes guidance and discipline. The child who is carefully guided by his parents and teachers will gradually develop his own sense of inner controls. If the child is deprived of guidance in his formative years, he feels threatened and may never acquire sufficient inner strength to function as a socially mature adult in a democracy.

If, however, discipline is too rigid, the child's spirit may be broken, and he may become the timid, overanxious child whom the teacher finds almost impossible to reassure. Or, through aggressive behavior, he expresses in the classroom the anger and resentment that he dare not show at home. Inconsistent discipline will also produce insecurity, and the child becomes confused and upset. Here, too,

his confusion will be reflected in his school adjustments.

Children need to feel accepted—to feel that there is some place they really belong. It is within the family that the child first finds his place. He needs to feel that his parents want him and approve of him as he is, not as they would like him to be. The child who is constantly criticized begins to feel that he is "bad." From feeling "bad," the next step is acting "bad." Or, because he finds it too uncomfortable to live with a concept of himself as "bad," he may project his feeling of badness on others: "I'm not selfish or lazy or mean. The other fellow is."

The need for acceptance involves the need for approval of the child's achievement. Education is often a frustrating experience for the child; it means that he must give up doing things the way he wants to do them and must learn a more mature, socially acceptable form of behavior. When learning is based on the child's readiness, on his own interest, and on his desire to grow, it is not nearly so frustrating. If there are adequate satisfactions in terms of love and approval, he feels compensated for the sacrifices he is asked to make. Gradually he learns the important lesson that giving up an immediate pleasure brings a greater, if delayed, reward in the form of love and approval and his own feeling of achievement.

THE PRE-ADOLESCENT

Characteristics of the child.—Adjusting socially to his new environment is probably the child's most difficult

task in the first years of school. Slowly he becomes more secure and more poised in his social relationships. His peers become increasingly important, and loyalty to his "gang" gradually replaces his old dependence upon his parents. His struggle for independence is also reflected in defiance, rudeness, and generally provocative behavior toward all adults. Dr. Spock describes this period as follows:

As he moves beyond the age of six he gradually turns into a different kind of child with new interests and new drives. There are at least three sides to it: He turns to the outside world, especially the world of his contemporaries, for his ideals; in order to shift part of his loyalty to his own age group, he seems to have to shake off some of his former dependence on his parents; he strives hard for self-control and self-discipline.¹

Fritz Redl² points out that the child has to go through a period of breaking up or loosening of his personality before the changes of adolescence can be built into it and modified into the personality of the adult. The purpose of this developmental phase, according to Redl, is not improvement but disorganization. He compares it to soaking the beans before they are ready to cook.

At this time there is often a return to infantile habits, such as thumb-sucking and bed-wetting, as forgotten impulses once more rise to the surface. Children may be oversensitive and cry

¹ Benjamin M. Spock, "Behavior Problems in Children," *American Home*, XXXVIII (October, 1947), 125.

² Fritz Redl, "Pre-Adolescents—What Makes Them Tick?" *Child Study*, XXI (February, 1944), 44-48.

easily. Their ability to withstand any kind of frustration is often nil. They are noisy, quarrelsome, and undependable, causing many an exasperated mother to tell her child to stop acting like a two-year-old.

As the child works toward setting up his own standards and ideals, parental values are questioned, and parents themselves become "dopes" and "old fogies who don't know anything."

Yet even while children are defying the adult world and are striving vigorously for independence, they are afraid of it. Growing up is an adventure into the unknown, while behind lies a known and comfortable security. One reason that Junior fights so hard to break the apron strings is that they represent a protection he is tempted to hold on to. This conflict between his longing for independence and his fear of it often produces anxiety.

The growth of inner controls or conscience also produces underlying tensions. The child is now becoming increasingly aware of "good" and "bad," "right" and "wrong." He becomes more conscious of his inner conflicts, his feelings of hostility and jealousy. Even though his parents may not have been unusually strict or critical, he may conceive of himself as a bad or unworthy person.

His need to keep up to the standards of his contemporaries and the demands of school impose additional strains. He seeks reassurance in his gang. When he is alone, he feels small

and helpless, but, when he is with his friends, he finds strength and security. Because there is safety in numbers, he wants to dress, act, and talk just like "the other kids." The greatest punishment is to feel different.

He finds further reassurance in identifying with the heroes of his comics books and radio stories. For a little while at least, he can be Dick Tracy or Superman. His collections, which range all the way from cigar bands or bottle caps to coins or stamps, also give him a sense of power. He can arrange and catalogue them any way he wants. He knows where each thing belongs. There is logic and predictability to the whole.

The pre-adolescent has a love of magic and ritual. A rabbit's foot or a flashlight becomes a secret talisman protecting him from all harm. Compulsive acts are also common. Junior wears out his shoe kicking a tin can all the way home from school, or he may run a stick along the same fence palings every day. He carefully avoids the cracks in the pavement as he sings, "Step on a crack, break your mother's back."

His tensions and anxieties are sometimes reflected in nightmares and night terrors. Nervous mannerisms, such as head-scratching, nose-picking, and facial grimaces, are not unusual. The most striking physical characteristic of children in this age group is their inability to keep still. They are constantly wiggling, twisting themselves into pretzel-like shapes, or manipulating things with their hands.

Dr. Spock states that nine is the peak age for chorea. This seems to be the age when children who are at all disturbed are most likely to have breakdowns.

Responsibilities of parents and teacher.—Unfortunately, at a time when children are facing new pressures from within as well as from the environment, parental pressures are also increased. The child's disobedience is met with strictness. If he has been noisy in school, Mother often imposes an additional punishment at home. Instead of being allowed to go out and play with his friends, he has to spend the afternoon in the house. The result is usually that he has twice as much accumulated energy and resentment the next day with which to plague his teacher. Behavior problems at school in this period are frequently the result of too much discipline at home.

Parents now tend to expect much more responsibility on the part of the child. It is, after all, hard to understand why a child who can do a complicated problem in long division cannot remember to bring home a loaf of bread.

The child is frequently pushed into all kinds of extra-curriculum activities. Piano lessons, dancing, art lessons, swimming classes, Boy Scouts, and Girl Scouts—all are excellent within themselves, but together they are often overwhelming and indigestible!

The child reacts to these pressures through daydreaming, forgetfulness,

and dawdling. The latter is a particularly effective means of driving parents to distraction. Getting Junior out of the house in time for school each morning often becomes a struggle that leaves Mother a nervous wreck. Actually, Junior is reacting in much the way we adults do—when under the pressure of too much work, we simply stage a slow-down.

Relations with the teacher often become increasingly strained in these years. The child's aloofness is not a sign of failure on the part of the teacher but rather a reflection of the child's attitude toward all adults. To illustrate this point, Dr. Spock³ tells of his experiences as a pediatrician in a private school. The seven-year-olds were extremely fond of him, and he made up his mind to maintain the excellent relationship he had with them. However, by the time they were nine, these same children were cold, indifferent, and thoroughly suspicious of him.

Basically, the pre-adolescent still needs love, protection, and acceptance—especially from his parents. No matter how critical, cocksure, or independent he may appear to be, he still wants to feel that, whenever the sledding gets too rough, his family will be there to help and guide him.

THE ADOLESCENT

Characteristics of the child.—The problems and changes of adolescence

³ Benjamin M. Spock, "The Middle-aged Child," *Pennsylvania Medical Journal*, L (July, 1947), 1045-52.

are so numerous that they can be touched on only superficially here.

Because the adolescent is going through a transition period, when he is neither child nor adult, he is often confused and unsure of himself. Many of the problems and conflicts of the preschool years once more appear. It is as if nature offers one more chance for straightening out these confusions before the young person passes into adulthood. But now the child himself, rather than his parents, must resolve the conflicts.

The adolescent often struggles again with intensified feelings toward the parent of the opposite sex. This is especially true when the relationship has been very close. By apparent antagonism and hostility, the youngster seeks to free himself from his attachment. A father whose daughter has always been extremely affectionate may now be disturbed by her coldness. A mother is often upset by her growing son's seeming rejection of her. Yet before the adolescent can make an adequate adult adjustment, he must, once and for all, work through his emotional dependence on his parents.

Body changes and new sexual feelings are other sources of anxiety to the adolescent. He is also concerned over differences in social and emotional maturity between boys and girls of the same chronological age. In the late elementary- and early high-school grades, differences between the sexes are particularly marked, as boys tend to mature more slowly than girls. The girls may already be interested in

dances and dating, while their male classmates still have to be reminded to wash behind their ears. Many a girl in her early teens has been gravely embarrassed by having a dancing partner who is at least a head shorter than she. The situation is not eased by the knowledge that her unwilling escort is only there because his mother made him go.

Not only is there unevenness of growth between boys and girls of this age, but within the same sex there are also wide variations in emotional, social, and physical maturity. Youngsters need to be reassured that, even though rates of growth differ, they even up in the long run. The very short boy should know that he still has plenty of time to grow taller, and the girl who shot up faster than anyone else in the class needs reassurance that her friends will eventually catch up with her.

Because the adolescent is not sure of himself, he is often unpredictable and moody. He is floating on the clouds one moment and has plummeted to the depths by the next. Not being sure how to act, he goes in for a good deal of experimentation. Susie may startle her teachers one week by trying out a new hairdo that makes her look like a cross between Veronica Lake and an English sheepdog. The next week her severe coiffure and languorous motions are faintly reminiscent of the *femme fatale* of the twenties.

In his desire to grow up, the adolescent is anxious to copy adult behavior.

Unfortunately, it is our vices rather than our virtues that appeal to him. Reckless driving, drinking, gambling, and sexual promiscuity are some of the ways in which the adolescent may try to appear grown-up. How to handle this kind of behavior often becomes a serious problem for both parents and teachers.

Some adolescents who are disturbed by their growing sexual feelings may seek refuge in asceticism and all kinds of personal physical abuse. They ignore the simplest health rules—dress thinly on the coldest days, starve themselves, or stay up all night. Others try to sublimate their feelings in increasing intellectual activity. Some go out for athletics and observe the most rigid of training rules. Still others turn to hero worship. At the risk of deflating the ego of the popular young male science teacher, whom all the girls “adore,” it should be pointed out that it is much safer to worship from afar than to be interested in the boy next door!

Responsibilities of parents and teacher.—Adolescence is at best a period of storm and stress, and parents and teachers must bear the brunt of the storm. Parents are often unable to reach their children during this stage, but the sympathetic and understanding teacher can be of great help. The adolescent differs from the pre-adolescent in that he wants someone to whom he can turn for guidance and counseling. He wants to talk out his problems. Because he will seldom turn to his parents, it is even more impor-

tant that there be an adult outside the family to whom he can go. This kind of guidance helps to bridge the gap between childhood and maturity.

Teachers also need to be aware of the social needs of adolescents. The school can do much to provide necessary social outlets and to help boys and girls toward a better understanding of each other and of themselves.

THE TEACHER AS A HELP TO PARENTS

From the time the child enters school, the teacher is in a position to observe and evaluate his behavior more objectively than his parents can. Because a child's behavior reflects how he feels, teachers have to remember to look below the surface for the source of the difficulty. Johnny's aggression in school may be due to the arrival of a new baby sister or to the fact that his parents have just been divorced. We cannot really help the boy until we know why he acts as he does.

Not only must teachers be alert to the various causes of behavior difficulties, but they also need to know what sources of help are available to parents. Simply telling a parent that he has a problem will not lead to effective solution of that problem.

The story of a mother seeking help at a child-guidance clinic illustrates the possible confusion of parents who have not received adequate help from the school. During the course of an interview Mrs. K. produced a letter which the school had written her about her seven-year-old son. The

letter stated that the child was abnormally aggressive and outlined a list of his misdeeds, which included punching the teacher in the stomach, kicking a crippled child, and beating up several smaller children. The letter added that, in view of her son's unacceptable behavior, he could not return to school for the rest of the year. It further recommended that, as the parents of the injured children might become angry, Mrs. K. had better take "appropriate steps." When asked if

she had done so, Mrs. K. replied proudly that she certainly had, she had taken out liability insurance.

The teacher's task is not only to recognize a problem but also to interpret it to the parents and, whenever necessary, to encourage them to seek trained assistance. Finally, only by seeing the child as a whole can the teacher effectively deal with his problems and help him toward a better adjustment in home and school and toward a satisfying maturity.

"AND"—A LESSON IN ENGLISH USAGE

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WHAT WORDS of the English language are most useful, most indispensable? Educational investigators have tried to find the answer to this question in order to decide which words it is most important to learn—or at least to learn how to spell! Thus, hundreds of thousands of words, as they occur in ordinary average reading matter, have been carefully counted to see which ones occur most frequently. In the tabulated results of these investigations, a word which inevitably stands near the top of the list is *and*. Except for such particles as *the* or *of*, hardly any other item is likely to be found more often. Apparently, therefore, *and* satisfies a basic need in the expression of our everyday thoughts. It is unique in being the only word for which, to save time in writing it so often, we have a special sign like a letter of the alphabet.

In a class in grammar, when the teacher asks for an example of a conjunction, the first one to be named is sure to be *and*. Everybody seems to think of it as the typical representative of that part of speech.

Yet it has often been made to do duty as an adverb, for that is the only thing it can possibly be when it appears as the first word of a sentence.

This adverbial use of *and* is a trick of style which can effectively mark a certain shade of expression not easily attainable otherwise. It can give a peculiar air of an added afterthought which no other convenient device could express in quite the same way. Only, the trick works best for the person who does not try it too often. Its intelligent employment is well shown in the writing of Nathaniel Hawthorne, who used it only sparingly. In *The House of the Seven Gables*, for instance, we read:

Who could this bold adventurer be? And, of all places in the world, why had he chosen the House of the Seven Gables as the scene of his commercial speculations?

Robert Louis Stevenson, whose "style" has sometimes been extravagantly praised, but who frequently put his thoughts together very loosely indeed, used *and* merely as a sort of makeshift means for getting a sentence started. Perhaps he intended it deliberately, to some extent, as a "conversational" touch, but, in places, it certainly seems overworked. In a fairly short essay, *Æs Triplex*, he uses this trick no less than nine times, without counting a number of clauses following a semicolon which amount to the same thing.

The failure of most people to develop anything like a mature manner of expression is intimately connected with habitual overworking of *and*. Nothing is more typical of juvenile sentence structure than the constant reliance upon this primitive device, a hitching-on of miscellaneous ideas one after another like a string of freight cars. It shows a lack of the more intelligent view capable of seeing a number of things grouped together in an organic whole, in which some details will be distinctly subordinated to others which are more important. Indeed, one might be justified in saying that *and* is the archenemy of progress in literary style. *So* is the only other word comparable to it in viciousness of influence against the feeling for unified structure. *So* is often childishly abused, without regard either for the fact of its being only an adverb (not a conjunction) or for its true meaning: "thus," "in that manner," "to that extent." Yet this other makeshift means of coupling is surely less overworked than *and*.

Anybody who ever has occasion to speak in public, or who cares to make the best of his "personality" in private conversation, should avoid letting any kind of mannerism fasten itself upon him. By "mannerism" we mean anything a person keeps doing continually, not for any intelligible reason, but simply as a meaningless habit which in time becomes a compulsion. Such manifestations are increasingly annoying to an audience because they constantly distract attention to no

purpose. So far as oral utterance is concerned, surely the worst example is the "uh" habit, to which so many speakers allow themselves to become utterly enslaved. We have all known people who almost exhausted our endurance by this perfectly needless mannerism. Oliver Wendell Holmes, in "A Rhymed Lesson," put the final emphasis on this point:

And when you stick on conversation's burs,
Don't strew your pathway with those
dreadful *urs*.¹

(As a native of Cambridge, Massachusetts, of course he did not pronounce the *r* in "urs" any more than in "burs"! *And* (or "anduh"), however, is often only the same thing in disguise. It is really more insidious because, being a real word instead of a frankly empty sound, it seems to mean something while actually it does not. Soon its use becomes a vicious habit which can considerably weaken the effect of otherwise clean-cut forceful speech.

In a great many sentences in which lack of punctuation makes reading less easy than it should be, the fault is simply a failure to recognize the effect of *and*. Whenever it appears without a comma before it, this conjunction naturally looks to an unsuspecting reader (who does not already know what is coming) as if it joined the *word* right before it with the *word* right after it. Compare for instance these two statements:

¹ *The Complete Poetical Works of Oliver Wendell Holmes*, p. 60. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1899.

They had a large apartment and furniture in it.

They had a large apartment, and furniture in it required frequent dusting.

Once a person has really grasped the distinction here involved, problems of punctuation will cause him little trouble. He will have seen what the thing is mainly "all about." Modern punctuation, in so far as it is at all intelligent, facilitates reading by keeping the sentence structure clear for the reader the first time he reads the sentence. Commas do not necessarily have anything to do with the marking of pauses, as people used to think, back in the days when everything that was written was punctuated as if it were going to be delivered as a formal oration.

Despite all the textbooks to the contrary, teachers have been known to inculcate as a theoretical principle the doctrine that *and* was interchangeable with the comma. This is a curious notion; for the two things are essentially opposite in their functions: *and* joins, whereas a comma separates. Yet this lingering misconception is no doubt the reason why many people—including many newspaper editors as well as a few respectable book-publishers—are systematically illogical in their punctuation of series. Comparison of the following examples will make plain the proper use of a comma in connection with *and*:

Their garden supplied them with tomatoes, peas, and beans.

He was popular with all the neighbors, old and young.

There was nothing on the table but salt and pepper, bread and butter, and a jar of jam.

Surely it is not difficult to see how a series differs in construction from the joining of units in pairs. In the first of the three quotations, *and* does not simply join "beans" to "peas" but adds the last item to the series as a whole. To the careless writer who does not try to see his writing objectively, as it actually looks, such distinctions mean nothing. Then, the correct punctuation of a series is made to seem unimportant by the fact that so many commonly recurring series are ready-made, stereotyped affairs, like "first, second, and third," "morning, noon, and night," or "men, women, and children." Since the reader already knows well enough what is coming by the time he gets to the conjunction, the omission of the comma before *and* will hardly mislead him as to the grammar, but he will be reading correctly in spite of illogical punctuation.

Better than any other single word, *and* will mark the quality of a person's oral reading. This is true simply because it is a typical example of our least-accented syllables. The degree of clarity or of neglect with which a reader enunciates *this* word will quite naturally correspond closely to his treatment of articles, prepositions, or unstressed syllables of all words or phrases in general. If he reads *bread and butter* as "breadn butter" or *black and white* as "blacken white," then his method of handling countless other combinations becomes apparent.

To anyone who has not actually tried the experiment, it will be astonishing to see what a difference in the clarity, in the rhythm, in the whole tone of oral reading will be produced by cultivating a clean-cut (of course, not exaggerated) enunciation of *and* wherever it occurs.

It is important to understand, however, that, at bottom, the faulty reading of *and* is not merely a neglect of an unstressed syllable but is the wrong division of syllables. It is the fault of grabbing off too much for one syllable, so that the following syllable is cheated out of its proper value—the same phenomenon which produces “mount-n” for *moun-tain*, “cert-n” for *cer-tain*, “watr” for *wa-ter*, “wintr” for *win-ter*, “import-nt” for *im-por-tant*, “pard-n” for *par-don*, or “mart-n” for *mar-ten*. Now, it is especially easy to see in the case of *and* that this kind of verbal corruption shows a basically wrong attitude toward word-grouping. The whole matter will be cleared up as soon as one learns to keep in mind the plain fact that *and* is not merely an appendage to the word which precedes it but is an introduction to the word or phrase *following* it. Incidentally, it will be seen that this relationship fits perfectly with the proper use of a comma in either a series or a compound sentence.

Sometimes one wonders how many

people really *say* “and” nowadays. The way it commonly sounds shows in extreme form the neglect of unaccented syllables which is a peculiar characteristic of English as it is spoken. It loses not only all semblance of the “a” but of the “d” as well. Absence of the latter is frequently not even indicated by a second apostrophe when people attempt to reproduce popular speech realistically. We see road signs or advertising labels with such captions as “bacon ‘n eggs,” “ice cream ‘n cake,” or “molasses ‘n honey.” It has come to the point where a person who unfailingly pronounced the theoretical *and* in phrases like “this and that,” “here and there,” “hit and run,” “spick and span,” “stop and shop,” or “five and ten” would hardly sound like a native American!

We began this discussion by noticing that *and* is one of the commonest of all our words. Is it really so useful that we cannot get along without it? Perhaps this article may pass for something of an answer to the question. Of course, it has been necessary to *mention* the word a number of times, but that is not at all the same as *using* it. Moreover, a few quotations were introduced as examples. Otherwise, however, it will be found that this article was written without even once using *and*.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

WALTER J. MOORE AND WARREN C. SEYFERT

University of Chicago



THE FOLLOWING LIST of selected and annotated references is the first in the nineteenth cycle of twenty lists comprehending almost the whole area of education which is published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*.

The term "instruction," as in all previous lists, includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement (or evaluation). The vertical scope of secondary education, as represented in the items of the list, extends through junior high school, senior high school, and junior college.

It is not the purpose of this list of references to furnish a complete bibliography of writings in the fields designated. Accordingly, in areas with especially large numbers of items in the published literature, some good items have been omitted, and the items which have been retained are representative rather than comprehensive.

CURRICULUM¹

1. ALBERTY, HAROLD, AND OTHERS. "How To Develop a Core Program in the High School." Columbus, Ohio: College of

Education, Ohio State University, 1949. Pp. x+90 (mimeographed).

Clarifies the meaning of "core" and its significance as an educational concept through identification and analysis of six types of programs in American high schools.

2. BENNE, KENNETH D., and MUNTYAN, BOZIDAR. *Human Relations in Curriculum Change: Selected Readings with Special Emphasis on Group Development*. Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 7. Circular Series A, No. 51. Springfield, Illinois: Vernon L. Nickell, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1949. Pp. 316.

Draws on investigations in the fields of "human engineering" and "group development" and presents forty-eight readings under such headings as "Conceptual Tools for Analyzing Change-Situations," "Groups and Group Methods in Curriculum Change," "Democratic Ethics and the Management of Change," and "Discipline for Leadership in Curriculum Change."

3. BRIGGS, THOMAS H. "Eventually—Why Not Now?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (April, 1950), 195-207.

Enumerates achievements of secondary education, lists reasons why the secondary curriculum of today is unsatisfactory, and

¹ See also Item 536 (Oliver) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1950, number of the *School Review*.

presents a proposal for "securing the new curriculum that every informed person recognizes as desirable and necessary."

4. CASWELL, HOLLIS L. "Research in the Curriculum," *Educational Leadership*, VII (April, 1950), 438-45.

Traces the development of the modern curriculum movement, examines research methods, discusses limitations in these methods, and calls for increased attention to research in curriculum matters.

5. COREY, STEPHEN M. "Conditions Conducive to Curricular Experimentation," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVI (April, 1950), 209-16.

Describes five "general characteristics of school situations that seem to be conducive to curricular experimentation of the action research type."

6. COXE, WARREN W. "The Opportunities of the High School," *School Review*, LVIII (April, 1950), 220-24.

Enumerates three approaches to curriculum improvement and suggests four broad areas for exploration.

7. DUNHAM, FRED S. "Advanced Courses in the High School Curriculum," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, XXI (February, 1950), 72-76.

Deplores the paucity of advanced courses in various subject fields in the high-school curriculum and outlines a program of "policies and practices which would provide opportunities for eleventh- and twelfth-grade pupils to carry forward studies begun in the lower grades."

8. DUNHAM, FRED S. "Cornerstones of the High-School Curriculum," *School and Society*, LXXI (April 15, 1950), 225-28.

Calls for a curriculum built on four cornerstones: aptitudes, sequence, diversification, and exploration.

9. EVANS, HUBERT M. (editor). "Cooperative Research and Curriculum Improvement," *Teachers College Record*, LI (April, 1950), 407-74.

The entire issue is devoted to a progress report of an experimental general-education course for tenth-grade pupils in the Battle Creek (Michigan) high school.

10. FROST, NORMAN. "The Curriculum and the Community School," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XXVII (May, 1950), 322-28.

Enumerates school and community experiences which might be co-ordinated and presents illustrations of current practices in selected school-community situations.

11. *Guides to Curriculum Building: The Junior High School Level*. Problems Approach Bulletin No. 2, Curriculum Bulletin No. 12. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Planning Program, 1950. Pp. iv+182. (Also published as Circular Series A, No. 51, Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Program Bulletin No. 8. Vernon L. Nickell, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Springfield, Illinois.)

Presents suggestions for curriculum revision under such headings as "Criteria for Curriculum Building," "Growth Characteristics of Junior High School Youth," "Social Pressures Influencing Junior High School Youth," "The Problems Approach in General Education," "Inaugurating a Common Problems Curriculum," and "The Guidance Role of the Teacher of Common Problems."

12. "The High School Curriculum," *High School Journal*, XXXIII (May, 1950), 102-26.

The entire issue is devoted to curriculum problems, including articles on "The Curriculum," "Unit Theory in Teaching Practice," "The Place of Curricular Activities," etc.

13. IVINS, WILSON H.; FOX, WILLIAM H.; and SEGEL, DAVID. *A Study of a Secondary School Program in Light of Characteristics and Needs of Youth*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXV, No. 6. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and

- Field Services, Indiana University, 1949. Pp. vi+68.
- Reports "the twofold problem of studying observable characteristics and needs of youth in light of curricular offerings and of establishing practical procedures which may be used by others in similar studies."
14. JACOBSON, PAUL B. "How Can We Organize the High-School Curriculum To Serve the Life Problems of Youth?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (January, 1950), 209-14.
Concerns itself with "the guidance and administrative aspects of the curriculum in an effort to meet the Life Problems of young people."
 15. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR. "General Education in the Junior College," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXIV (April, 1950), 357-63.
Identifies obstacles to general education in the junior college and suggests methods by which these obstacles may be overcome in developing a curriculum based on the demands of our own era.
 16. LAWLER, MARCELLA R. "Important Phases of Problem Definition in Curriculum Improvement," *Teachers College Record*, LI (May, 1950), 537-43.
Envisions curriculum-improvement programs begun with the study of a problem, as entailing precise definition with respect to census, identification, clarification, delimitation, plans for moving ahead, and further clarification and delimitation.
 17. LEONARD, J. PAUL. "Organizing the Curriculum To Meet Youth Needs," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (April, 1950), 228-34.
Suggests eight steps deemed necessary for reorganization of the high school locally and recommends three actions at the national level which should be taken to support local efforts.
 18. MUMMA, RICHARD A. "The Real Barrier to a More Realistic Curriculum: The Teacher," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVI (January, 1950), 39-44.
Points out that the "greatest barrier to life-adjustment education is the teacher, whose academic slant and teaching methods are ingrained by tradition, and who fears change."
 19. NATIONAL COUNCIL OF INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS. "The Functions of Secondary Education in the United States," *School and Society*, LXXII (September 23, 1950), 193-95.
Presents Part I of the National Council of Independent Schools' statement concerning the functions of all secondary education in the United States. Subsequent parts will deal with the purposes, nature, and problems of independent secondary schools and with an evaluation of independent education in America.
 20. "Planning for the Junior High School," *High School Journal*, XXXII (November-December, 1949), 226-65.
The entire issue is devoted to consideration of various aspects of planning a program for the junior high school. Includes articles on such topics as improving instruction, guidance, adolescent development, activities, etc.
 21. ROGERS, HELEN J. "The Emerging Curriculum of the Modern Junior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (April, 1950), 128-38.
Identifies trends characteristic of the emerging junior high school curriculum, reviews organizational patterns, and discusses critical issues in several subject-matter areas.
 22. STORY, M. L. "Popular Magazines Ignore the High-School Curriculum," *Clearing House*, XXIV (April, 1950), 480-81.
Reports a survey of popular magazines in an attempt to learn the quantity and nature of articles about the high-school curriculum appearing over a ten-year period.
 23. WATERS, MARGUERITE. "A School-Community Occupational Survey," *Cal-*

Journal of Secondary Education, XXV (April, 1950), 201-4.

Describes a school-community survey of occupational needs for deriving factual bases for curriculum change.

24. "What Curriculum for the Slow Learner?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (April, 1950), 4-16.

In presenting this issue before the meetings of the Association, Mary A. Sheehan and Arthur S. Hill identify "slow learners," enumerate factors to be recognized in developing a curriculum for slow learners, stress certain limitations, and call for closer articulation between school levels as programs are developed.

25. WRIGHT, GRACE S. *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools: An Inquiry into Practices, 1949*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1950, No. 5. Pp. iv+32.

Presents a systematic picture of the status of the core curriculum in high schools of the United States by outlining existing patterns at city and state levels.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION*

26. BLAIR, GLENN MYERS. "Provision for Atypical Children in the High School," *High School Journal*, XXXIII (January-February, 1950), 25-29.

Declares that, since every pupil is atypical in some respect, high-school curriculums should be "sufficiently flexible to provide modifications of greater or less degree for all pupils."

27. BRICKMAN, WILLIAM W. "The Secondary School," *School and Society*, LXXII (August 5, 1950), 84-91.

Reviews textbooks pertaining to secondary education for the period 1947-50.

*See also Item 473 (Dillon) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1950, number of the *School Review*.

28. ELIAS, L. J. *High School Youth Look at Their Problems*. Pullman, Washington: College Bookstore, State College of Washington, 1949. Pp. 42.

Reports a survey of 5,500 members of 154 high-school graduating classes in the state of Washington regarding their opinions, problems, complaints, and ambitions.

29. FRAZIER, ALEXANDER. "General Education in the Junior College: Lessons from the High School," *School Review*, LVIII (April, 1950), 201-10.

Identifies four lessons that the junior college can learn from the high school in facing up to its task of providing a tenable program of general education for the masses. Includes a bibliography.

30. GOODENOUGH, FLORENCE L. "The Contribution of Research in Human Development to High School Teaching," *High School Journal*, XXXIII (January-February, 1950), 2-5.

Reviews studies from the literature of psychology pertaining to human development. Stresses the importance of, and need for, longitudinal studies of individual pupils.

31. GUNDERSON, ROBERT GRAY. "Group Dynamics—Hope or Hoax?" *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXVI (February, 1950), 34-38.

Reviews developments in the group-dynamics movement and views with skepticism the claims advanced by its adherents.

32. KLOHR, PAUL R. "The Resource Unit in Curriculum Reorganization," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (May, 1950), 74-77.

Defines "resource unit," examines its use in practice, and makes six suggestions for incorporation in a well-organized, effective resource unit for use in the secondary school.

33. MAASKE, ROSEN J. "How To Associate with Students of Junior-High Age," *Clearing House*, XXIV (April, 1950), 459-63.

Presents an overview of the characteristics of the junior high school student and makes specific suggestions in three areas on how to get along with students at this age level.

34. MELCHIOR, WILLIAM T. *Instructional Supervision: A Guide to Modern Practice*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1950. Pp. x+486.

A textbook on supervision which "answers the why, what, and how of certain problems of instructional supervision through a series of wide-ranging Illustrations of Practice."

35. METCALF, LAWRENCE E. "Attitudes and Beliefs as Materials of Instruction," *Progressive Education*, XXVII (February, 1950), 127-30.

Describes a technique for utilizing attitudes and beliefs as materials of instruction where-in the emphasis is on the re-examination of beliefs and the clarification of attitudes.

36. PARHAM, LILLIAN C. "A Variation in the Question-Answer-Discussion Method in Junior High-School Teaching," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (October, 1949), 101-3.

Cites benefits derived from utilizing a round-table type of procedure in the teaching of history.

37. PFLIEGER, ELMER F. "A Consultative-cooperative Method," *Educational Leadership*, VII (December, 1949), 171-75.

Describes a consultative-co-operative method in establishing effective learning classes at the high-school level.

38. RAUTMAN, ARTHUR L. "Using Educational Research in Improving Instruction," *Educational Leadership*, VII (December, 1949), 181-85.

Stresses interdependence of research and teaching by defining responsibilities of workers in each area.

39. REPLOGLE, VERNON L. "What Help Do Teachers Want?" *Educational Leadership*, VII (April, 1950), 445-49.

Reports a study which sought to define areas in which teachers need supervisory assistance. Delineates fifteen of these areas and discusses implications for supervision.

40. *Research Findings Applicable to Teaching in the Secondary School*. 1950 Yearbook. Plainfield, New Jersey: New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association (Lester D. Beers, treasurer, 1035 Kenyon Avenue), 1950. Pp. 96.

Makes accessible to teachers the findings of selected published reports of investigations related to general classroom practice and to practice in the various subject-matter areas.

41. RINGKAMP, HENRY C. "The Principal Looks at Supervision," *Catholic School Journal*, L (January, 1950), 4-6.

Cites the role of the principal as supervisor in Catholic high schools, with a forward look as to what might be accomplished were supervisory practices to be grounded on eight phases of supervisory procedure.

42. RUCKER, D. C.; PITTMAN, ALICE; ELLIFF, JESSIE; and FOSHAY, A. WELLESLEY. "Action Research Means Cooperation," *Educational Leadership*, VII (December, 1949), 164-70.

Embraces two articles describing elements of a research program which challenges teachers and administrators, showing the methods of organization, the maintaining of co-operation, and the necessary next steps.

43. SAMPSON, BILL A., and JACOBSON, PAUL B. "Controversial Issues Involved in Work-Experience Programs," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (January, 1950), 215-18.

Discusses some of the problems which must be solved by an administrator who wishes to develop a program of work experience.

44. STONECIPHER, J. E. "Contemporary Problems in Instructional Materials," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXIV (April, 1950), 364-68.

Considers how teachers may undertake the selection of materials to be used in instruc-

tion, the fields in secondary education in which the problems of instructional materials are most pressing, and how new instructional materials may be obtained.

- ✓ 45. SUGARMAN, MYRTLE F. (editor). *Effective Learning for Use in Junior High School*. Denver, Colorado: Board of Education, 1949. Pp. 72.

Presents, through the medium of dialogue-discussion, viewpoints for the implementing of a program designed to meet the unique needs of young adolescents.

46. WALCOTT, FRED G. "Teacher-Pupil Planning," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, XXI (December, 1949), 37-40.

Makes suggestions for the development of the abilities needed in planning and in profitable self-direction.

47. WALTERS, T. L. "The Unit Plan of Instruction," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (May, 1950), 85-90.

Reviews the development of the unit plan of instruction, enumerates variations, suggests ways of initiating plans, and lists problems which arise as a result of its utilization.

48. WEBBER, FRANK D., and ATKINSON, BYRON H. "Dynamic Classroom Control," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIV (October, 1949), 350-52.

Lists principles and suggests techniques for achieving functional classroom control.

49. WILES, KIMBALL. *Supervision for Better Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950. Pp. xvi+330.

A textbook in supervision which considers such topics as "What Is the Function of a Supervisor?" "Supervision as Skill in Leadership," "Supervision as Skill in Human Relations," "Supervision as Skill in Group Process," "Supervision as Skill in Personnel Administration," and "Supervision as Skill in Evaluation."

50. WILLIAMS, CURTIS T. "Group Dynamics as Classroom Method," *University of Washington College of Education Record*, XVI (January, 1950), 33-36.

Reviews developments in the group-dynamics movement and suggests possible implications for improvements in method.

MEASUREMENT³

51. ALLEN, WENDELL C. "Evaluation of Student Progress," *Washington State Curriculum Journal*, IX (November, 1949), 40-41.

Calls for a broader conception of the term "evaluation" because it "should be a continuous activity of both teacher and students, planned and carried out together."

52. ANDERSON, KENNETH E. "A Frontal Attack on the Basic Problem in Evaluation: The Achievement of the Objectives of Instruction in Specific Areas," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XVIII (March, 1950), 163-74.

Reports a systematic method of appraising the growth of students toward each of several fundamental objectives, in selected courses offered in fifty-six representative high schools.

53. "Are There Better Ways of Evaluating, Recording and Reporting Pupil Progress in the Junior and Senior High Schools?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 73-89.

In presenting this issue before the thirty-fourth annual convention of the association, Lemuel R. Johnston cited reasons why marking is a difficult task and made suggestions that hold promise for a more equitable system. William A. Liggitt analyzed the purposes, bases, and present methods, and presented five basic issues concerned with evaluating, recording, and reporting student progress.

³ See also Item 562 (Diederich) and Item 563 (Engelhart) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1950, number of the *School Review*.

54. BOWMAN, LILLIE LEWIN. "Self-evaluation at Tenth Grade Level," *California Journal of Educational Research*, I (January, 1950), 15-19.

Describes a program of self-evaluation in secondary schools which is "a co-operative project involving administrators, counselors, teachers, and students, the ultimate goal of which is to lead students in making sequences of desirable choices which foster security and satisfaction."

55. BRICKELL, HENRY M. "What You Can Do with Sociograms," *English Journal*, XXXIX (May, 1950), 256-61.

Recounts experiences with groups in which sociometric techniques were utilized, indicating what may and may not be accomplished through employing sociograms.

56. EDWARDS, T. BENTLEY. "Measurement of Some Aspects of Critical Thinking," *Journal of Experimental Education*, XVIII (March, 1950), 263-78.

Reports a study which "has for its purpose the preparation of instruments to measure pupil ability to think critically with the facts of science."

57. ELICKER, PAUL E. "Looking at a Testing Program for Secondary-School Youth," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (May, 1950), 183-87.

Discusses possible testing areas which should be considered in test development, the need for new forms, the need and use of norms, criticisms of tests in use at present, and some of the educational values of a testing program.

58. FINDLEY, WARREN G. "Educational Evaluation: Recent Developments," *Social Education*, XIV (May, 1950), 206-10.

Presents an analysis of developments in the field of educational evaluation. Includes consideration of teacher-made tests, contemporary-affairs tests, the appraisal of published tests, and the evaluation of interpersonal relations.

59. FOREMAN, EARL. "Improving the Reliability of a Teacher-made Test," *School Review*, LVIII (May, 1950), 285-90.

Presents devices and techniques which may be used to increase the consistency of a teacher-made test.

60. FROCK, WALTER F. "A Basic High-School Testing Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (October, 1949), 75-80.

Lists some of the uses, purposes, and objectives of the basic high-school testing program.

61. FURST, EDWARD J. "Statistics and Educational Goals," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, XXI (February, 1950), 67-69.

Calls for testing programs which are effective in encouraging students to develop in the directions stated by educational objectives.

62. GHISELLI, EDWIN E. *The Validity of Commonly Employed Occupational Tests*. University of California Publications in Psychology, Vol. V, No. 9. Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1949. Pp. 253-88.

Describes attempts to discover general trends in the validity of tests for the selection of workers in various occupational groups.

63. HEMPHILL, JOHN K., and WESTIE, CHARLES M. "The Measurement of Group Dimensions," *Journal of Psychology*, XXIX, Second Half (April, 1950), 325-42.

Describes the development of a series of group-dimension scales which purport to measure fourteen dimensions of groups, including such characteristics as autonomy, control, flexibility, etc.

64. KIGHT, STANFORD S., and MICKELSON, JOHN M. "Changing Pupil Behavior," *California Journal of Educational Research*, I (January, 1950), 40-43.

- Reports attempts to determine the relative effects of two approaches to changing pupil behavior through an investigation involving 24 teachers in 11 schools, who taught 8 problem-centered units and 8 subject-centered units to 1,415 pupils in 96 classes.
65. MICHAELIS, JOHN U., and HOWARD, CHARLES. "Current Practices in Evaluation in City School Systems in California," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLIII (December, 1949), 250-60.
- Reviews current practices in programs of evaluation in school districts in California. Considers direction of the programs, handbooks for teachers, evaluative devices being used, testing programs, cumulative records, and critical problems currently confronting those in charge of evaluation.
66. ODELL, C. W. "Marking Pupils," *High School Journal*, XXXIII (January-February, 1950), 13-16.
- Believes that "it is reasonable to expect an approximately normal distribution of marks for all pupils in all courses, or even in all classes taught by a single teacher, but not in each course or class" and suggests that one of the best ways to determine the marks of individuals is by the use of *z*- or standard-score techniques.
67. PRESSEY, S. L. "Development and Appraisal of Devices Providing Immediate Automatic Scoring of Objective Tests and Concomitant Self-instruction," *Journal of Psychology*, XXIX, Second Half (April, 1950), 417-47.
- Reports a number of projects utilizing various devices for securing immediate automatic scores on objective tests and concludes that there are various promising means for automatic scoring and self-instruction.
68. PULLEN, THOMAS G., JR. "A Pragmatic Approach to Evaluation," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XXVII (October-November, 1949), 2-9.
- Reviews basic concepts underlying public education and suggests criteria for their appraisal.
69. RANSOM, WILLIAM L. "How Well Does Your High School Rate on the Ten Imperative Needs of Youth?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIII (October, 1949), 8-46.
- Presents a comprehensive check list whose value "lies in the fact that its use will enable a school more easily to identify the weaknesses in its program as a means for meeting the imperative needs of youth."
70. SEGEL, DAVID, and GERBERICH, J. RAYMOND. "Overview of Educational and Psychological Testing, 1946 to 1949," *Review of Educational Research*, XX (February, 1950), 5-16.
- Continues review of educational and psychological testing begun in this publication in the 1930's by considering, for a three-year period, books and monographs on measurement, general publications, intelligence and aptitude testing, personality, measurement, armed-forces testing, etc.
71. SHIMBERG, BENJAMIN. *The Development of a Needs and Problems Inventory for High-School Youth*. Studies in Higher Education LXXII. Further Studies in Attitudes, Series XVII. Lafayette, Indiana: Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University [n.d.]. Pp. 78.
- Reports study whose purpose was to develop a needs-and-problems inventory for high-school youth, for use in individual guidance and as a survey technique for administrative purposes.
72. TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. "15 Criteria of a Testing Program," *Clearing House*, XXV (September, 1950), 3-7.
- Presents, in question form, general criteria believed to be applicable to nearly all kinds of schools and practically all grade levels.
73. WINANS, J. MERRITT. "Measuring I.Q. Changes of High School Students," *California Journal of Educational Research*, I (March, 1950), 56-59.
- Reports a study to determine if "learning in high school which is measured by teachers' marks transfers to an intelligence test."

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

JESSE PARKER BOGUE, *The Community College*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950. Pp. xxii+390. \$4.00.

The concept of a community college with a variety of functions and programs has been gradually emerging for approximately two decades. This concept has arisen as the curriculum of the junior college has been enlarged from the first two years of a traditional college education to include other forms of instruction originating in the educational needs of the community in which the college is located. In his new book, *The Community College*, Bogue traces the development of this movement as a need which is as widespread today as the need for a four-year high school was a few decades ago.

The book treats the community college as a movement, not as an institution. In the first four chapters, the author introduces the reader to the philosophy underlying the movement, traces the various directions in which its services are expanding, discusses the basic functions that it is serving, and predicts its probable future trends on the basis of its historical development. As the movement necessarily embraces both publicly and privately supported colleges, he gives attention to the distinctive role of each.

Throughout the book repeated reference is made to the essential place that general education must occupy in the program of any community college. No specific formula for a program of general education is recommended, but basic principles are presented, with descriptions of practices in institutions which are attempting to give general education a central place in their curriculums.

The need for the integration of general

education with vocational and technical instruction receives special attention as a unique function of the community college. The point of view that technical education without general education falls short of its possibilities is emphasized. Because a salable skill for job entry alone does not fulfil the requirements of citizenship in a community, the community college has a responsibility for taking the lead in providing unified programs including both general and vocational instruction.

The community college is shown also to be rapidly enlarging its function to include a program of adult education. The primary purpose of such a program is not merely to provide information and skills but also to awaken personality and give to the individual a real sense of personal responsibility and self-evaluation. The author sees in these programs an opportunity for the community college to play a significant role in the education of all the people.

In tracing the community-college movement, Bogue recognizes that institutions vary greatly in the extent to which they carry on the various functions mentioned above. He devotes a chapter to the various forms of organization in which the movement is appearing, another chapter to the administrative plans under which individual institutions operate, and a final chapter to some of the critical problems that the movement is facing. The Appendix contains a statement showing the influence of the philosophy and writings of Alexis F. Lange on the growth of the movement.

The community-college movement has reached that stage of its development in which it is beginning to take on a character

and individuality of its own in current educational philosophy. It seems destined to occupy in our educational system the intermediate stage between the present high school, on the one hand, and the university or professional school, on the other. Its exact forms and functions as an administrative unit in the educational system are still in the stage of experimentation and development. In writing *The Community College*, Bogue has rendered a genuine service in evaluating sympathetically and critically the progress of the movement to date. His interpretations of the history and educational philosophy back of the movement give direction to its future trends, and his illustrations of current practices acquaint one with its present status.

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EVELYN MILLIS DUVALL, *Family Living*.

Edited by DORA S. LEWIS. New York:
Macmillan Co., 1950. Pp. xxii+410.
\$2.60.

With the increasing emphasis in recent years on better human relations and family living, a new book in these areas for high-school students is always in order. Since we live in a society dedicated to the democratic way of life, it is essential that democratic values be demonstrated in the various areas of human relationships and that students understand, appreciate, and carry out these values. *Family Living*, a new book written by Evelyn Millis Duvall and edited by Dora S. Lewis, represents an attempt to discuss with adolescents certain personal and family values which the author, from her extended knowledge of trends in the field of family living, regards as significant.

The book contains six units on personality development, family relationships, youth relationships, preparation for marriage, child

development, and modern American family life. Although the experiences provided in the book have been prepared with due regard for continuity and sequence, each unit is complete in itself and may be studied independently of the others. In planning the volume, the author gave particular attention to students' interests and problems. As a family-relations consultant, she has worked closely with pupils and teachers with the result that about twenty-five thousand questions from students form the primary basis for the content of the book.

The content has been developed from the latest research studies, clinical findings, and expert opinion in the fields of psychology, sociology, and human growth and development. Although the author has made a great effort to be scientific, her attempt to reconcile the varying points of view in these fields sometimes suffers from the defect of most eclectic presentations—the absence of a truly central purpose. Apparently, the major theme throughout the book is growth—chronological, physical, intellectual, emotional, social, and philosophic growth. Youth are assisted in understanding their own growth change during their adolescent years and the changes in the family occurring at the same time. While growth is certainly an important consideration, it is not inconceivable that someone might raise the question "growth toward what ends?"

A laudable degree of scholarship underlies the writing of this book. Up-to-date research findings are skilfully presented to make the theme of the book meaningful to an adolescent reading public. To develop further the interests of the students, Mrs. Duvall has employed some actual case studies, a few humorous cartoons to illustrate the concepts involved, and an informal and conversational style of writing.

The outstanding features of the book are a well-selected list of recommended readings for each chapter, a list of advanced readings for the more sophisticated students, suggested activities (including films, fiction,

etc.) which are introduced at appropriate points in the book, and the inclusion of modern teaching methods, such as group dynamics, panel discussions, interviews, projects, poll-taking, field trips, and self-evaluation instruments. The Appendix contains a compilation of additional sources for films, filmstrips, pamphlets, professional journals, bulletins, periodicals, and popular magazines. The sources have been selected with sufficient care to embrace the divergent views of many groups toward the problems of family life. Since many aspects of family living are of a controversial nature, it is to the author's credit that she has avoided making issues of such matters as mixed marriages and sex hygiene and has left them for each community to treat in whatever manner it deems acceptable.

Teachers of home economics and social studies who are interested in guiding young people to maturity in their personal and social development will find *Family Living* useful.

J. J. VALENTI

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HERMAN DREER, *American Literature by Negro Authors*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1950. Pp. xiii+334. \$3.20.

On examination of Herman Dreer's new book, *American Literature by Negro Authors*, which, so far as this reviewer knows, represents a first attempt to produce an anthology of American literature by Negro authors, the reader may at first think of the handicaps these authors faced in attaining recognition for their achievements. He may, however, in case he has not heretofore followed closely their expressed convictions, be inwardly surprised at the artistic quality of their literature which portrays the innermost thoughts of a people seeking more adequate recognition for themselves.

In order to visualize the inner longings il-

lustrated by Negro folk literature, the reader may take a historical slant, going back to the days of slavery when a people of many dialects was largely forbidden to read and write. He may thus develop a better insight and note the decided progress represented by such persons as Booker T. Washington, orator; William E. B. DuBois, essayist; Langston Hughes, poet; Jessie R. Faucet, novelist; and Willis Richardson, dramatist. Selections from approximately fifty authors are found in the anthology.

The compiler has organized this material for high schools and junior colleges into the following nine parts: "Folk Literature," "Poetry," "Letters," "Biography and Autobiography," "The Essay," "Addresses," "The Short Story," "The Novel," and "The Drama." In the introduction preceding each part, he explains the type of literature to be considered and gives illustrations of how Negro writers, as compared with writers of other races, have dealt with literature of the same nature. Preceding these selections is a short account of each author's life and works. A brief bibliography for supplementary reading or further study is included in the final pages.

This anthology serves at least two purposes: it exhibits to all that the Negro has opportunities for inspiration from members of his own race, which probably has served in no small measure to guide him to his present level; and it will cause others, who may not have had faith in the Negro because of the slow start attributable to his circumstances, to realize that the Negro has recorded those ideals which will, if attained to a measurable degree, bring about a different attitude on the part of society toward him. While certain of these selections will be a source of inspiration to individuals of every race, this collection will no doubt prove an especial incentive to the Negro, since the achievements and aspirations portrayed have been wrought by members of his own race.

In assembling this material which is representative of many generations of his race,

the compiler has accomplished a noteworthy beginning. It seems likely that other persons having the opportunity to view the aspirations and ideals of a race of people, encumbered as they were from the start, will take renewed courage from such evidence and push more vigorously on toward the realiza-

tion of their purposes and their hopes. At any rate, it is good material to put before growing youth.

EDWIN S. LIDE

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Bulletin 1950, No. 5—*Core Curriculum in Public Schools: An Inquiry into Practices, 1949* by GRACE S. WRIGHT. Pp. iv+32. \$0.15.

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Circular No. 322, 1950—"Holding Power and Size of High Schools" by WALTER H. GAUMNITZ and ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS. Pp. iv+26 (mimeographed). \$0.20.

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MISCELLANEOUS

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